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ANNOUNCEMENT

The Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors will be held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on March 28–29, 1952. For a statement concerning the program of the meeting, see p. 805.

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SOME EDUCATIONAL DILEMMAS[1]

By OLIVER C. CARMICHAEL

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

A survey of the current educational scene reveals a series of conflicts that baffle and confuse. Some represent ancient dilemmas that have persisted for centuries. Others are of more recent origin. All are attracting more attention and are being discussed more frequently since 1945 than ever before. A review of some of these problems may throw light on their nature and thereby aid in their solution or, if not that, may at least point them up in such a way as to expose them to closer scrutiny. If this essay does nothing more than the latter, it will have achieved its purpose.

Depth Versus Breadth in Scholarship

The first of these may be termed *depth* versus *breadth* in scholarship and learning. This has been the subject of hot debate in many areas of higher education, ever since the introduction of the elective system in colleges and secondary schools. The same arguments pro and con have persisted with little change since the system was introduced by Harvard and Brown some seventy-five years ago. The growing complexity of society and the broadened base of talents and interests of the ever-increasing student population have favored the spread of the system. The movement toward what is now called general education is aimed at providing a common core, some unity in the diversity, some foundation for a common cultural background which was formerly provided by a relatively uniform curriculum on each of the levels—the secondary school and college—that curriculum being one of the casualties of the elective system.

In recent years the problem of depth versus spread has arisen

[1] Reprinted from the Forty-sixth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation or the Advancement of Teaching, for the year ending June 30, 1951, through the courtesy of the author.

in the graduate schools where both researchers and teachers receive their preparation. The complaint is that the degree of specialization (scholarship in depth) which has prevailed in these training centers does not provide adequate or suitable preparation for high school and college teaching. Even in professional education the rumblings of discontent with specialization are now being heard.

The uneasiness about college and university education is not based merely on the recognition of the fact that depth in limited areas has resulted in the fragmentation of knowledge, with no adequate provision for putting the pieces together so as to enable the student to perceive its essential unity. It stems also from the realization that too often the major issues of life and thought are sidestepped. To avoid superficiality only small segments of knowledge are explored. Although these relate to the major issues of life and thought, that relation is rarely pointed out. Youth is kept so busy digging around the separate roots of the real issues, he never looks up to see the tree; indeed, his attention is rarely directed toward it. This constitutes one essential difference between the new and the old curriculum.

One wonders what would impress a professor of seventy-five years ago if he should return to resume his labors. He would doubtless be amazed to observe the change in emphasis in the undergraduate curriculum. He would probably be prepared, however, to accept the increase in scientific and technological courses, in view of the advance of science and technology and the great stress on graduate and research work in the atomic age. He would probably understand also the reasons for many of the new courses listed under the social sciences and the humanities and for the decline of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew. His real shock would come when he began to examine the relative position of philosophy as a subject of study. He would be still further confused when he found how few students it attracts in the average college or university.

Logic and metaphysics, natural and moral philosophy, which were so central in the curriculum which he knew, he would fail to find. It would be explained, of course, that abstract logic and metaphysical concepts are naturally not too popular in a practical and scientific age, though they are still listed in some catalogues,

and that the offspring of natural and moral philosophy have had remarkably rapid growth through childhood and youth and are now highly respected citizens of the academic community. The progeny of natural philosophy, it would be explained, are chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, astronomy, which in turn have produced offspring of their own—biochemistry, biophysics, geophysics, etc., and that moral philosophy likewise has had a healthy brood—sociology, economics, and political science.

Our imaginary 19th century professor would not only be puzzled, he would in all probability be greatly disappointed. He would find little trace in the current curriculum of the philosophical and moral considerations so prominent in his day. He would probably conclude that the college is no longer concerned with the effort to understand the nature of reality or the meaning of life. Judging by the curriculum he would inevitably conclude that in the modern university search for truth had been displaced by *search for facts*, that moral values had given way to *social organization* as a subject of study, and that specialization had sacrificed not only breadth of understanding, but other even more fundamental elements of the old curriculum.

It is the vague realization of this fact that has resulted in a deep discontent with the curriculum at the undergraduate, graduate, and professional levels. As Sir Richard Livingstone once remarked: ". . . The most important task of education is to bring home to the student the greatest of all problems—the problem of living—and to give him some guidance in it"; . . ."that youth needs a philosophy of living, for shaping conduct, for reference in doubt, for challenge, stimulus, and driving power."

The responsibility for filling this gap, for strengthening the foundation of college and university education, undoubtedly rests upon the faculties, though administrative concern and support are essential if their efforts are to be effective.

Discovery Versus Dissemination of Knowledge

A second problem, closely related to the first, is *discovery* versus *dissemination* of knowledge as the goal of the university professor. To judge by the criteria of promotion, chiefly published researches, which prevail in many universities, the imparting of knowledge

appears to have a low priority. Indeed, the first president of the University of Chicago some fifty years ago boldly declared that, in his university, research was the primary and teaching the secondary objective. He was among the first to emphasize the importance of scientific and technical research as a university function. That emphasis influenced largely the American university pattern as we know it today. Despite the outstanding achievements of such agencies as the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, the Brookings Institution and others, research and technical institutes are not as common in the United States as in Europe. Instead, research, basic and applied, as well as teaching, have been considered university functions, though the relationship between the two has never been clearly defined.

While all agree today that the university has a responsibility for discovering as well as disseminating knowledge, the fact is sometimes overlooked that those engaged in the first pursuit are relatively few, while those occupied with the latter are numerous, and that likewise few students "sit at the feet of the master researcher," while many learn from teachers. The complaint is that the shift in emphasis from teaching to administration and research in many universities has reduced teaching to a secondary or tertiary position in the scale of accepted values. Too often the sentiment prevails that any ordinary person can teach while only scholarly people can do research.

This is due in part to the youth of the present university organization in the United States. It is really only seventy-five years old. Although the first earned Ph.D. degree was given at Yale in 1861, the number granted by the turn of the century in all institutions was negligible. Even then twenty per cent of them were honorary. At Princeton, for instance, sixty-seven honorary Ph.D. degrees were granted between 1866 and 1896, while only twenty earned ones are recorded for the period. Indeed, the present graduate and research programs may be said to have developed since the First World War. In 1918 only forty-six institutions were granting the Ph.D.; by 1941 this number had risen to ninety-six. Only five hundred and twenty-seven advance degrees were granted by all institutions in 1918, while by 1941 that figure was 3526, and in 1950 more than five thousand.

This brief summary of the growth of graduate education is designed merely to provide perspective in viewing the shortcomings of graduate schools. They have expanded so rapidly and the demands for their products have been so heavy that they have had little opportunity to take stock of their position or the direction in which they were moving. Only when colleges complained of the quality of teaching of the young Ph.D., and experience showed that the vast majority of all Ph.D. graduates entered the teaching profession, did the graduate schools begin to realize that they should take soundings and re-examine their aims. The result has been prolonged discussion of and considerable planning for a new emphasis on preparation for college teaching. Chicago, Stanford, and the Universities of Missouri and Oregon are among those institutions that are pioneering in this field. Not until the graduate school has set its house in order as the provider of college teachers can we hope to effect needed reforms in the colleges.

As already indicated, one phase of the problem that has received too little attention is the relation of teaching to research. In universities where promotion and other rewards are based upon publication, a real need exists for redressing the balance, for devising means of recognizing and rewarding good teaching. The University of Chicago has recently moved in this direction by establishing distinguished professorships in the college for the avowed purpose of exalting the teacher's rôle. On the other hand, in some universities and many colleges the crying need is for more adequate means of stimulating research and creative activity. This has been the chief objective of the faculty grants-in-aid program supported during the past five years by this Foundation.

Sparks from an active and imaginative mind are necessary to the kindling of intellectual fires in youth. Only when research so absorbs the time and energy of the teacher that interest in the student is crowded out does it jeopardize teaching. No parent would choose as teacher of his offspring one who is solely concerned with research any more than he would like to see him under the knife of a surgeon who is more interested in the advancement of the science of surgery than in the welfare of his patient.

A comprehensive review of the relation between teaching and research as functions of the American college and university should

throw light on one of the basic problems in American higher education.

Objectivity Versus Values in Education

Another more subtle and frequently unrecognized problem of instruction is that of reconciling certain criteria of good teaching with the declared purposes of instruction. For example, objectivity is the first rule of the teacher in a democratic society, where education must be more than propaganda. Yet one of the aims of the educational process is to develop in the student a sound sense of values. Unless a value system is assumed or explicitly stated, instruction can make little or no contribution to the achievement of this aim. On the other hand, how can instruction based upon an implied or explicit system of values escape the charge of indoctrination?

As a result of this conflict students are taught to withhold judgment until all the facts are in. Conclusions based on incomplete evidence are likely to be false; hence, the *caveat*—beware of making hasty decisions. But all the evidence is rarely ever at hand. All through life decisions must be made and action taken before complete knowledge of a situation can be acquired. The effective citizen must be more than a spectator in life's conflicts. He must take sides, must frequently act before it is clear what all the facts are or what the outcome will be. How does this practical necessity square with the scientific dictum? Effective citizenship is surely one of the primary objects of education. How can it be achieved on the basis of teaching youth to reserve judgment until all the evidence is in, and refusing to provide a basis for reaching sound judgments?

The orthodox position of social scientists has been stated by one of them as follows: "The scientific method as such provides no techniques for answering questions of value, for determining ultimate ends, for weighing the merits of an ethical or political controversy, for deciding what, if anything, ought to be done as a matter of social policy." On the other hand, Professor R. Elberton Smith, an economist, argues persuasively that ". . . the orthodox position is essentially false; that it rests upon an unwarranted and outmoded dichotomy between means and

ends, between 'facts' and 'values'; that it confuses issues which concern the achievements of science with issues pertaining to scientific methodology; and that it is inconsistent with newer developments in epistemology and metaphysics." Professor Smith further states in reference to the social scientist that: ". . .Now, under the pressure of urgency, he is torn between Scylla and Charybdis—between the futility of sitting on the sidelines while society gropes for valid ends, and the apparent necessity of renouncing his methodological faith."

The outcome of this debate among the social scientists is of profound importance to American higher education. If those whose training fits them to understand the structure of society, its supporting beams, its rafters and its roof, as well as its foundations, decline to utilize their engineering and architectural knowledge and skill in pointing out the weaknesses and the means of remedying them, upon whom may society call for aid? While the reticence of thoughtful students of human relations in prescribing remedies is understandable and commendable, it is nevertheless a matter of concern, in the light of recent events, that no one seems to be in a position to assume that rôle.

The recent revelations of low standards in high places, of outright corruption in public office, of widespread organization of gambling and crime, of basketball and football scandals and of honor code violations, should surely be sufficient to arouse the American people and to shock educational leaders into a re-examination of their goals and methods. In a country which numbers only seven per cent of the population of the world, but which has more young men and women in college than all the rest of the world combined, the educational system can scarcely escape a share of the responsibility for the conditions revealed. These are but symptoms of a collapse of moral and spiritual values which should stir to action parents of children, leaders in public affairs, schools, colleges, and churches.

Educational institutions have perhaps the greatest opportunity to contribute to the improvement of the situation. If the social scientists are inhibited by their methodology from dealing with questions affecting public manners and morals, let the humanists set to work to formulate a system of values based upon the history

and traditions of western civilization, and let teachers redouble their efforts to find means of instilling worthy ideals.

College and university faculties have an unusual opportunity in the present situation to reiterate and re-emphasize the importance of moral and spiritual values in the teaching of youth, and in their efforts to improve the curriculum and methods of instruction.

The Immediate Versus the Remote Objective in Learning

The relation of the immediate to the remote objective in learning is an ever-present problem in the education of youth. It underlies the conflict between vocational and liberal education, but goes much deeper and ramifies into other areas.

Carl Van Vechten in the foreword to *Peter Whiffle* declared that his only purpose in writing the book was to have no purpose. He had a tale to tell, he wanted to tell it, but he had no ulterior reason for doing so. The true scholar, motivated by a genuine curiosity, approaches learning in much the same spirit. He pursues truth for its own sake or perhaps because he is impelled to. He rebels against the notion that he is to be judged by the value to man of the results of his labor. His object is not even to extend the boundaries of the known, but to follow an impulse. His is a worship, pure and undefiled, at the feet of the goddess of truth. No ulterior object, no utilitarian purpose, no mundane goal is permitted to influence his quest. This is the ideal of pure scholarship.

While this ideal is still an element in the motivation of the modern scholar, it is no longer dominant in his research. Not only is utility not scorned as an object of research, but it is the criterion by which research is judged. Too little emphasis in modern times is placed on the goal of "truth for truth's sake" in both teaching and research. Frequently, the result is limited horizons, short-range objectives and restricted achievement. Pursuit of truth for its own sake is essential to fundamental discoveries.

The development of intellectual interests which are never satisfied, which impel the individual to a never-ending search for knowledge, is one of the chief goals of the formal educational process. Without such interests the college or university graduate

can never be truly educated or really equipped for effective leadership. In a complex and rapidly changing society, an inquiring, alert, and active mind is the first requisite for coping with the endless variety of problems which arise.

The so-called "progressive" education movement, based upon discovering the interests of students and building the curriculum around these interests, was designed to encourage the habit of inquiry, but if school and college have not aroused *new intellectual* interests, they have failed. An important purpose of higher education in particular is to lead the student to the discovery of new fields of interests, of unknown talents and aptitudes, and of vistas of knowledge hitherto unsuspected. This means that he must be led into new territory and encouraged to explore it. If he has curiosity, the exposure to new scenes will be effective. If not, the labor will be in vain. Thus curiosity, the desire for knowledge, the urge to pioneer, is basic to real education as well as to research. One may be keen on learning facts that will enable him to achieve certain ends, but if the urge to learn depends entirely on the relevance of the knowledge acquired, the process of acquiring it may be "training" but not "education" in the real sense.

Vocationalism, scientism, and anti-intellectualism are terms that have been used to describe the tone and atmosphere of the American campus. To the extent that the indictment is warranted, it indicates the lack of a real spirit of learning, of an unbiased quest for knowledge, of the intellectual tone usually associated with a seat of learning, and of the traditional atmosphere of a great college or university. Reference has already been made to the scarcity of philosophy courses, and to any adequate emphasis on the nature of reality, the meaning of life, the reason for striving. The absence of these elements on the campus is due partly to the emphasis upon vocational courses, upon skills instead of learning, and upon science and the scientific method.

These facts on which the indictment is based are common knowledge. They have been debated constantly since the Flexner book on American universities, and have been consistently deplored. Beyond that, little has been done to remedy the situation. It is clearly the task of the faculty to study the problem of restoring

the spirit of learning to its rightful place in the community of scholars. The administration can do little by itself, though it can support faculty efforts. But professors who are interested only in their specialty and whose energies are wholly absorbed in extending the boundaries of knowledge in a limited field can give little help to the enterprise. The great need is for a revival of interest in this problem on the part of faculties, encouragement to investigate it, and machinery for implementing their findings.

Freedom Versus Regimentation in Higher Education

At a time when teachers' oaths, Congressional hearings involving university professors, and calls for loyalty investigations of faculties fill the headlines, the most obvious and acute problem of higher education is that of maintaining the traditional freedom of inquiry and of teaching. Those who demand the protection of the American tradition of freedom in order to be able to accomplish its overthrow deserve no consideration or sympathy. That there are few such in American institutions is attested by the fact that after more than five years of agitation and investigation, only six or seven professors have been dismissed from their posts for lack of loyalty. But the finger of suspicion has been pointed at thousands of others whose loyalty is attested by lifelong devotion to American ideals. More than that, many have been deprived of their livelihood or their reputation because of unsubstantiated, but widely publicized, charges.

Suspicion of a man's loyalty because it is shown that communists agree with him on a particular point has been indicated in press releases. Such an insinuation constitutes not merely character assassination, but the most insidious attack on the American way of life itself. To brand a man by an involuntary association of that kind is to violate the American spirit in favor of communistic methods. Following that logic, we would renounce the American doctrine of "free education for all," since the Communist Manifesto demands it.

The climate of opinion which permits such folly is designed to stifle academic freedom and thus to abrogate one of the great American traditions. If regimentation should ever replace real freedom in teaching either through legislation or intimidation,

not only would the dynamics of education be lost but one of the chief bulwarks of freedom would be removed. Thus, while the threat to academic freedom is an educational problem of the first magnitude, it is much more. It is of concern to all those who cherish the tradition of free enterprise in all its aspects, for what is in jeopardy is the central core of the American system. Though educators are expected to man the forts that protect this basic American tradition, they may be unable to withstand the onslaught alone. They may need to enlist a reserve of thoughtful friends and alumni who will come to their rescue if the forces of reaction become too powerful.

College and university presidents have deplored the situation. A series of articles appeared some months ago in the *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors, pointing out its significance, and an occasional piece has appeared in nonprofessional magazines in defense of the independence of thought and freedom of expression of colleges and universities. But a review of the current literature which reaches the general public reveals a surprising lack of attention to this problem. Too few laymen have recognized and come to the defense of the basic freedoms involved in the threat to academic freedom through both legislation and intimidation.

Pronouncements of associations of teachers, professors, and administrators are of little help in combatting the foes of freedom. These are read by members of the profession who, for the most part, are already aware of the situation, and by few others. The public needs to be aroused. This is the responsibility of faculties. The danger is that they will be so absorbed in their own back yards, in advancing research in their fields of specialization, that they will fail to build the dikes against the rising tide of reactionism which threatens to engulf them. They cannot, without great risk, neglect this responsibility.

Faculty Versus Administration in Determining Educational Policy

A sixth question of fundamental importance to higher education, but little discussed except when conflict occurs, is that of the relation of the faculty to the administration, including the board of control, in the determination of educational policy.

The early universities were communities of scholars with few administrative officers or trustees. In the oldest of the British universities to this day the active administrative head, the vice-chancellor, is a member of the faculty or administrative staff who serves for a short period, usually three years, and then returns to his teaching post. A president with indefinite tenure and a board of trustee, or regents are unknown.

The American plan has many advantages over the British. In any case, it is a fixed pattern which is likely to remain. But it has one fundamental defect—a lack of adequate faculty participation in the determination of educational policy. Where an active university senate operates, this criticism may be largely met, but in most colleges and many universities no such body exists. Thus, the faculty which is responsible for educational results has little to say about policy. Those who make the budget largely determine the emphasis and, in the long run, the educational direction of the institution. No adequate channel of communication between the faculty and the administration for the interchange of ideas on policy has been developed. It is not clear whether it is lack of interest on the part of the faculty or the desire of the administration to keep control in its hands that is the more responsible for this situation. Whatever the cause, the effect on the educational enterprise is the same. It suffers.

The phrase "educational policy" as used in this context emphasizes the educational program and its implementation rather than its administration, financing, or staffing. This means not merely the curriculum, teaching methods, and quality of classroom instruction, but also the tone and atmosphere of the campus, the spirit of inquiry prevailing there, and the character of the issues that concern faculty and students.

In the foregoing pages a series of problems has been discussed. The solution in each case is clearly a faculty responsibility. The nature of each problem is such that the president and deans can contribute little directly toward its solution. The problems are for the most part intangible, but recognition of them and serious study of their significance should indicate some tangible means of at least partial solution.

At present there is no adequate machinery in operation for

discovering the nature of the obscure forces at work that undermine *real* education and, therefore, no means of coping with them. Under the present system it is everybody's business and hence really nobody's business, on most campuses, to study the impact on the student of the college experience as a whole, to take a detached view of the effectiveness of instruction, of student activities, and of the intellectual tone of student life, not to speak of the moral and spiritual atmosphere of the campus, and to consider what might be done to improve the situation. Yet there is no doubt that the intellectual, moral, and spiritual tone of an institution is more important than its libraries and laboratories, its classrooms and student centers, or even its researches and publications.

Clearly this matter should be a central concern of the faculties and some means should surely be devised, not only of stimulating that concern, but of translating the findings growing out of it into the spirit and atmosphere of the campus. Such a device would go far toward providing the faculty with an opportunity to contribute to educational policy in a strategic area.

TOTALITARIAN AND FRAGMENTARIAN

By CARL E. W. L. DAHLSTROM
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There are two general areas of thought and behavior: the totalitarian and the fragmentarian. To put it otherwise: If we commit ourselves at all, either we proceed deductively on the basis of inclusive, authoritative patterns that once and for all time provide solutions to all problems, or we proceed inductively to create plans that are sufficiently fluid to be changed or even abandoned as we grow in knowledge. The former, the totalitarian procedure, implies that knowledge is whole, that the pattern is complete, and that individuals have no duty beyond understanding the pattern and conforming to it. The latter, the fragmentarian procedure, implies that knowledge is fragmentary, that no absolute pattern exists or can be devised, and that individuals must forever be creating and recreating the ways of life. These views stand in contraposition to each other and are mutually exclusive.

It is quite possible that some individuals who have thought themselves definitely opposed to totalitarianism will, on more careful reflection, find themselves genuinely in sympathy with it. What they dislike is a particular manifestation, something superficial, not the basic idea itself. Moreover, some who are opposed to totalitarianism in all its forms but have been led to believe that there is no other firm place to stand, may find in the fragmentarian view a whole universe to roam. In an effort to end whatever confusion may exist, let us try to make clear the fundamental concepts of these two general areas of thought and behavior.

First of all, let us ask this question: What is a totalitarian? An individual is a totalitarian if he subscribes to an inclusive system of thought, utterance, and action, and believes that this system is inherently authoritative and hence necessarily applicable to all men. In other words, he accepts the idea that there is some plan, some system, some scheme, some philosophy, some mode

of behavior, either now in existence or yet to be found, that will take care of all situations. Since the pattern is absolute, all men, all women, and all children must conform to whatever is prescribed. Right living, happiness, freedom, and the abundant life exist when there is conformity to the absolute pattern; wrong living, misery, slavery, and death are the results of noncompliance.

Let us note that this is not a matter limited to political activity. Totalitarianism is inclusive; thus, when put into effect, it necessarily embraces all areas of life even though it may have had its origins in a special field. A totalitarian political program includes economic, educational, religious, and other programs which must conform to the political scheme. By the same token, a religious totalitarianism must have conformity on the part of political, educational, and other programs. It makes no difference whatsoever whether kindergarten teachers or philosophers, politicians or priests, capitalists or laborers, the W. C. T. U. or the Maffia inaugurate the program; if it is totalitarian it includes all, and its objective is total compliance on the part of every man, woman, and child.

With this understanding we may readily comprehend that totalitarians are invariably authoritarian. There can be no argument about the authority of absolutes and thus no questioning of the dicta of those who represent the absolutes. There is no room for discussion, for give-and-take, for individual opinions. The special duty of the leaders is to procure full adherence to the given pattern of thought, utterance, and action; the common duty of all persons, including the leaders, is total compliance.

We also know why totalitarians are intolerant. They subscribe to an absolute pattern, the only right one, and consequently have no basis for considering anything else. All notions contrary to their own are inescapably silly, stupid, criminal, sinful. It follows that it is wholly rational and moral for totalitarians to destroy nonconformists. Whether they drive them insane, expel them, enslave them, or kill them is just an academic question pertaining to method of extirpation. What is important is that the evil should be destroyed in the most effective way possible, and it is patent that noncompliance is *ipso facto* evil. Tolerance is wrong

because it encourages and fosters evil. The true and the good cannot prevail until noncompliance is completely rooted out.

Still further, science and historical records can have no validity in themselves. Validity, we must recognize, is established according as a so-called "record" or "fact" fits into the absolute pattern. Inasmuch as the scheme of things is absolute, it is obvious that what does not fit into it must be, to all intents and purposes, nonexistent. What is right belongs; what cannot belong is wrong. To be history, then, records must conform to what has been established as perfect; to be science, facts must likewise conform. Here again we should realize that not only must men, women, and children conform to the inclusive pattern in their thoughts, utterances, and actions, but that every phase of the universe, extrahuman as well as human, must conform. The past and the future must conform as well as the present; genes and atoms must respond according to their predetermined behavior; the galaxies and space itself must comply. Indeed, not only the here but the hereafter must fit the pattern of totalitarianism. Total is total. There is no room for anything else.

II

Patently we can go no farther in that direction. Let us turn, therefore, to the other area of thought and behavior. What is a fragmentarian?

Owing to the fact that the fragmentarian stands in contraposition to the totalitarian, it is well first of all to anticipate possible misconceptions. Let it be understood immediately that the fragmentarian is not merely an opponent who has nothing to offer in place of that which he cannot accept. Again, he is not a nihilist who denies the existence of all values. Nor is he an anarchist who believes that all men are fundamentally good and by nature will behave nobly if organization is reduced to purely voluntary associations. Finally, he is not an isolationist who thinks that he can eliminate the problems of the world by cultivating provincialism.

Defensive fighting and nothing else, nihilism with its denial of all value, anarchism and voluntary associations, isolationism and its self-stultification—these are all illusions and hence of the same general order as totalitarianism. The fragmentarian can accept

none of them. His is an affirmative view, a rational view based on actualities, a vital view determined by the dynamics of living. The illusion of total patterns, affirmative or negative, is an evasion of life and thus a yearning for death; the recognition of the fragmentary quality of life, on the other hand, is a rational acceptance of all the circumstances in which men find themselves.

But, positively speaking, what is a fragmentarian? By this time it has doubtless become apparent that the term "fragmentarian" arises because of an incapacity to accept the view that knowledge is whole. Obviously if knowledge is not whole, it is fragmentary. Furthermore, if knowledge is not whole, no valid total pattern is possible and there can be no rational plans other than those that represent a fragmentary grasp of life and its problems. The burden of proof, of course, lies with those who claim that knowledge is whole. Their task, they should be made to understand, is not simply one of word play; significant proof requires them to present knowledge in its wholeness.

The incapacity to accept the view that knowledge is whole is a consequence of the fragmentarian's basic principle. The totalitarian is deductive, deriving everything from the absolute pattern; the fragmentarian, on the other hand, is inductive and thus must find and create for himself. Owing to the fact that his very existence is fraught with so much peril and uncertainty, and the opportunities for deceiving himself are almost without limit, he knows that he must be cautious in the extreme. He expresses this caution in his regard for honesty. For the totalitarian, honesty is nothing more than compliance with the inclusive scheme of things. The fragmentarian, however, is on his own resources; so he must come to grips with himself as to what he must do and how he may proceed. Very quickly he learns that he will make no certain progress unless he is honest with himself. Thus his first principle may be formulated as follows: One should try to be completely honest in his thinking.

The attempt to be honest in thinking leads the fragmentarian to recognize that he can place no final reliance in practical experience alone, in science alone, in reason alone, or in sentiment alone. He must accept each for what it is worth, for the values that it may grant him. In truth, each provides ways of meeting problems and arriving at solutions, but none is capable of displacing the

others and functioning as an absolute. In many respects, each is a possible corrective of the others, but not one is master. Thus the fragmentarian relies on personal experiences where he has no other choice. Even though science may "prove" that bumblebees do not fly, the fragmentarian accepts the witness of his own eyes. There is something wrong with science, not with the bumblebee. So too, though the rationalist may say that a two-pound stone must fall through space twice as rapidly as a one-pound stone, the testimony of the senses is the determining factor. Yet the fragmentarian also finds that he must accept the verdict of science that the earth is turning on its axis, not that the sun is turning around the earth, despite what he thinks he sees with the naked eye. Indeed, he requires science to test the report of his senses and in turn to be tested by the senses, and in a comparable manner he uses and tests the reports of reason. Finally, he is convinced that without sentiment life becomes meaningless. Meanings, however, do not come to him from some absolute scheme or power; through experience he has come to understand that men must themselves think and labor to give meaning to life. No one, for example, knows precisely what is meant by the "good," the "true," and the "beautiful," but through thought, utterance, and action, the fragmentarian enriches these terms with a plurality of meanings. Again, although he thinks of compassion as love which in some measure is qualified by disinterestedness, he does not know how to define this human quality accurately. At the same time, he recognizes compassion in himself and in others. In truth, he finds sentiment a necessary corrective for the dispassionate character of both science and reason.

III

Because the fragmentarian endeavors to be honest in his thinking he tends to become modest in his pretensions. It strikes him as utterly brazen and even blasphemous that men should solemnly set forth absolute schemes not only for this world but for the next. Yet his sense of compassion also helps him comprehend that men have lived in such misery that they have sought shortcuts to felicity. They wish to be gods before they have learned how to be

men. They wish to express total knowledge while they are grossly ignorant. They desperately want to believe that there is some scheme—a magical formula, a philosopher's stone, a system of thought, a revelation—that will suddenly transform the world into a paradise. And then, because they know not really what they do, they lie, cheat, steal, betray, destroy, and murder; and they do these things at times even on behalf of their "ideal."

Men are ignorant, far more ignorant than knowing, and there is no probability that they will ever know enough to fashion a perfect scheme for the world. There will always be lacks, there will always be disappointments, there will always be catastrophes, there will always be sorrows. Indeed, these will exist in sufficient abundance, both quantitatively and qualitatively, that men need never go out of their way, as they now do, deliberately to add to human misery. If men and women only understood how fragmentary their knowledge is and how fragmentary it will always remain, they might try to express themselves in their humanity, limited as it is, rather than devote themselves in varying degrees of fanaticism to illusions of absolutes.

The proverb has it that a little learning is a dangerous thing, but actually it is dangerous only when it is assumed to be total knowledge. The one who has "completed" his learning and hence thinks that he knows everything is the dangerous man, for he will apply his little learning as though it were total. Now we shall have to face it: Men will always have no more than a little learning; knowledge will always be incomplete. Apart from figures of speech there are no absolutes for men. Thus it is of the highest importance that we remind ourselves day in and day out that we do not possess total learning. It would be well also to remember that many of those who manipulate their little learning as total knowledge too often add to the misery of their fellow men.

Because knowledge is fragmentary and will always remain so, the probabilities are that men will always be more or less in error. Indeed, we may say not only that error is inevitable but also that it is not always detectable. It is essential therefore that no man deliberately introduce error either into his own life or into the lives of others.

Although we must try to be wholly honest in our thinking, there

is no probability of complete success. The opportunities for failure are many because not only is life a mixture of horrible and delightful confusions, of distractions, allurements, and temptations, but the means of coming to grips with life are always inadequate. Among the instruments that we possess, language tends most toward inclusiveness; yet this instrument is often so limited, so clumsy, and so inexact that it is uncongenial to honesty. At times we find it impossible either to say what we seem to be thinking or to accept what we have finally put into words. Gradually we awaken to the fact that language is an imperfect tool which often enough cannot do otherwise than produce imperfect communication. Then we begin to wrestle with it. At first we tend to develop a turgid, over-ornate, and prolix style in a vain effort to say fully and precisely what we mean. Usually this leads to jargon which, ironically enough, has to be translated by experts before anyone can understand it. Later we move toward the other extreme in which we seek mastery over that paradox of style, a rich simplicity. But neither in prolixity nor in simplicity do we succeed in being completely honest in utterance. What we learn finally is that the devices of a language may make for stylistic enhancement but all too often they are impediments to honesty.

Because he is ever wrestling with his native tongue, the fragmentarian becomes poignantly aware of contradictions and inconsistencies in his utterance. Always there is the temptation to reconcile verbally what is factually beyond reconciliation. Indeed, we must be grateful to the totalitarians for teaching us so convincingly that a consistent thought structure is not necessarily an honest one nor is it *ipso facto* translatable into ways of life. Totalitarians, as we have said, assume that knowledge constitutes a whole, that this whole may be possessed by men, that it may be translated into an inclusive authoritative pattern of thought, utterance, and action and that it may be imposed upon a human unit called "society." The totalitarians, of course, are at times juggling with ideas, at times juggling with verbal forms. Even if knowledge were whole, could be possessed *in toto* by men, and could be translated into an absolute pattern, the totalitarians would still be caught inextricably in the web of incommensurability. Having arrived at the notion of the pattern by a succession of assumptions, they further

assume a society upon which the pattern is to be imposed. There is little doubt but that many of them do not understand that there is no such thing as "society," that there is only an involved idea. To put it differently, the word "society" stands for no definite, tangible thing or phenomenon; it is only a verbal abbreviation for a very complex idea that is beyond formulation. The complex idea embraces the multifarious and multilateral relationships of men, women, and children, relationships which we cannot fully enumerate, let alone clearly define. In effect, the totalitarians attempt to impose on people a pattern that has been designed for something that does not exist.

What happens when a pattern, something fixed, is imposed on people, something dynamic, is the same thing that happens if we try to use a certain volume of water as a man's hat. The one item is incompatible with the other—the two do not fit each other. After all, pattern and people are by nature incommensurable. The one is absolute, constant, and static; the other is impermanent, variable, and dynamic. The totalitarian, of course, is obdurate in bringing together the pattern and the people. His pattern is inclusive—the product of perfect reasoning, the revelation of the gods, the wisdom of the ages—and thus there can be nothing wrong with it. It is the people that must be wrong, and they must be forced into the pattern no matter what happens to them. Here the fragmentarian's position is like that which was taken by Jesus when he said, "The sabbath was made for man, and not man for the sabbath." When the pattern does not fit, it is obvious what must be done.

The fragmentarian knows very well that it is folly to believe that one can get rid of incommensurables by verbal hocus-pocus, whether by fiat or by rationalizing. Mere word play results in fallacious or crooked thinking, and it can do nothing but abet cruelty, create misunderstandings, increase misery, and reduce men's potentiality for improvement of their lot. The only sensible thing to do is to examine carefully what experience, science, reason, and sentiment reveal to us and then try to make the best of the situation.

The systematic thinker usually creates a coherent whole, but he tends to do this at the expense of honesty in thinking. The

fragmentarian, on the other hand, insists on honesty in thinking even though he must accept inconsistencies and thus fail to produce a thought pattern which is free from structural blemish. He finds it only natural that an ignorant, imperfect, and ephemeral creature like himself should not be able to solve the riddles of the universe, and he is extremely skeptical of his fellow men who claim that they have the solutions.

The fragmentarian's aim is unlike that of the systematic thinker. The latter, assuming that the universe must be whole and that knowledge must also be whole, is satisfied only when he deals with a completely consistent pattern. The fragmentarian, however, has no fond illusions about the universe and knowledge. He wishes to learn whatever he can learn, and he has no sense of defeat or failure because this learning "does not come out right"—is not absolute. He is, in fact, delighted with whatever comes to hand, whether it be knowledge of earthworms or of galaxies.

IV

In sum, then, the fragmentarian is not a negativist. He proceeds inductively by virtue of his senses, science, reason, and sentiment. He knows that error is inevitable and not always detectable; thus he cannot afford deliberately to introduce error. He must try to be completely honest in his thinking, even at the expense of consistency. Inasmuch as he realizes that knowledge is fragmentary and that it always will be fragmentary, he knows that man's growth need never cease. He is tolerant of others because all are in the same general cast of circumstances, no one having an infallible guide. As far as he can see, the task of every man and every generation is to re-examine the old fragments of knowledge, to grasp for new, and to endeavor to give added significance to human life.

Throughout the history of human kind, it seems that men have tried to think in a totalitarian way while the circumstances of life have compelled them either to adopt fragmentarian procedures or to suffer the consequences—unnecessary confusion, misery, hatred, cruelty, death. The twentieth century has thus far been in harmony with the historical tradition, for human life continues largely

to be an expression of frustration arising through the conflict of thought patterns and actualities. Indeed, the so-called "lost generation" of writers and their kind voluminously testify to the confused life that results from total values which cannot be shaken off. Many of our writers could not accept the old inclusive patterns as valid, but they had nothing with which to fill the vacuum created by loss of faith in the traditional absolutes. Thus in their nostalgia for the mental comfort of the past, or what they deemed such, they not only wrote tragedies but they furnished materials for the creation of tragedy—they were men and women who could neither accept the absolutes nor live without them.

Contemporary manifestations of totalitarianism invite us to cry out again with renewed force: Know thyself! If one believes that the authoritarian way alone guarantees safe personal passage through life and perhaps even provides entry into some other desired world, if one is convinced that there is some knowable absolute scheme that is valid for all men, women, and children, he has no alternative but to recognize himself as a totalitarian. If, on the other hand, he is unable to accept the absolute views, he should realize that he need not despair. There is the whole universe for his thoughts and a fairly large Earth for his body. Ignorant as he is, fragmentary as his knowledge must be, a man still has the potentiality for abundant living. This does not mean an earthly paradise, a land of sweet dreams; but it does mean living without undue fear, without sadistic cruelty, without unnecessary frustration, without fanaticism. It means a goodly measure of political and economic security, tolerance, friendship, enjoyment, and compassion. It means that men will no longer think that the choice must rest between living like gods or living like beasts; they will understand that it is possible to live like human beings.

SPECIALISM: A DISSENTING OPINION

By GEORGE J. STIGLER
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One subject on which almost all academic specialists agree is the evils of specialism. My university and many others impose courses in contemporary civilization or general science on the students to give them a well-rounded view of the universe. The view certainly will not have many edges when economics is taught by historians and psychology is taught by economists. My university and many others contrive inter-departmental seminars to integrate the allied sciences and to explore some subject to its ultimate reaches. Some of these research teams have pushed so far that rescue parties will soon be necessary.

Specialism (like its cousin, the younger generation) would probably be mostly something to be deplored when one is in a nostalgic mood, were it not for the educational foundations. For their priests, "the integration of knowledge" is the cry to perpetual battle with the sinning specialists. To them we owe (and are still paying for) some of the shiny ornaments of our intellectual life—the institute that "cuts across conventional lines" and the interdisciplinary project.

It is my thesis that this worship of the cosmopolitan mind is romantic foolishness. As a gesture toward consistency, I shall illustrate my arguments in support of this position from the field of economics rather than attempt to glean a variety of examples from other disciplines of which I lack a thorough (specialized) knowledge. Out of consideration for noneconomists, however, I shall take my illustrations from "general" economics rather than from my own field of specialization (homogeneous oligopoly).

The Division of Labor

One man working alone can make perhaps 20 pins in a day. If the task is divided among 10 men, each of whom specializes in

doing a part of the work, they can make 48,000 pins each day, or 4800 pins per man. With this famous example Adam Smith put the division of labor among the great organizing principles of social activity, and for two centuries or more men have prospered by pushing the principle into every nook of economic life and also into every nook of intellectual life. It is essential for the young scholar to specialize: only in this way can he acquire more knowledge than his older and more experienced colleagues. Indeed, for both the young and the old scholar there are only two defenses against the accumulation of knowledge: generalization and specialization, and of these the latter is more efficient.

For example, Wesley C. Mitchell specialized in the study of business cycles and extended our knowledge much beyond that of his predecessors; now many specialists are studying the cycles in particular industries or economic processes, and are adding greatly to the knowledge Mitchell accumulated. Again, thirty years ago men began to estimate national income. The precision and detail of these estimates have increased continuously as men specialized in estimating particular components of the national income, such as incomes of independent professional men and incomes of financial institutions.

This is as trite as water: specialism is the royal road to efficiency in intellectual as in economic life. The widely trained individual simply cannot hold his own in any field with the individual of equal ability and energy who specializes in that field. Indeed, the individual who now attempts to survey a whole science or discipline is viewed as a popularizer ("journalist") or even as a charlatan, and definitely not as a creative scholar. It is notorious that when a man combines two diverse specialties, the members of each specialty acknowledge his eminence only in the specialty with which they are unfamiliar.

What Division Points?

Every specialist will admit the advantages of the division of labor. Since the modern specialist is equal in capacity to the less specialized scholar of former days, and only slightly more neurotic, it follows that the former knows more about the things on which he specializes. *But*, it is said, many problems cross the boundaries

that separate specialties, and they cannot be dealt with satisfactorily unless the specialist follows them, and this he is not able to do. In a more radical version, it is said that most problems of importance must be treated as wholes—the sum is more than the parts—and true understanding cannot be reached by any number of specialists.

Such remarks almost always rest on one or both of two propositions. First, that most real problems cross the boundaries of the specialties, *i.e.*, the specialties are wrongly defined. Second, that all specialists of a given genre have the same knowledge and competence. Both of these propositions are wholly wrong.

The border "lines" of specialties are really zones, but let us ignore this for a moment. It should be obvious that the lines of division between specialties arose out of experience. No congress of academicians drew up the present lines of division. Instead, these lines of division developed pragmatically because they proved tenable and useful limits at which the investigation of considerable sets of important problems could be dropped without vitiating the results.

The economists, for example, rid themselves of psychology because they found that they could construct a body of theory that could deal with a wide set of important problems and yield useful predictions, without building on a complicated theory of individual behavior. They rid themselves, at least for a time, of political science, because in the contemporary private enterprise economy they were analyzing, the state played a relatively minor and unpervasive rôle.

Nor are these lines of division among specialists immutably fixed. They react to changes in the phenomena to be studied in the social sciences and they react to changes in the state of knowledge in all sciences. Specialists are continuously experimenting with new ranges of analysis to see if better understanding of their problems can be reached. It is a tribute to the significance of the current boundaries that most of these experiments are failures.

For example: Each decade, for nine decades, economists have read widely in the then current psychological literature. These explorers have published their findings, and we have found them wanting—wanting in useful hypotheses about economic behavior

that baffles us. Perhaps the next effort will be successful, and then we shall quickly establish a new specialty, the psychonomists.

Nor are the specialists a set of experts cast in one mold. No two of the creative minds in a discipline have the same knowledge, techniques, or interests. Some economic theorists are interested in the formal structure of the science, and work in fields like the theory of games and dynamical systems. Other theorists are interested in the substantive elements of the science, and work in fields like input-output analysis and the statistical analysis of demand. Some men are learned in mathematics, others can understand income tax returns, still others are students of the history of our discipline.

It is a gross impertinence for an outsider to tell the specialists that they do not know how to deal with the problems on which they specialize. It is almost equally impertinent, and no more helpful, to assert that the problems which are dealt with by specialists are less important than some other problems. Of course the "lines of division" between specialties may be inefficient at a given time, but only by employing successfully a new range of analysis will the inefficiency be demonstrated and located.

Teachers Are Different?

The hardy universalist may concede the greater efficiency of specialism and the fact that specialties are based upon reason, but he will nevertheless say that teaching is different. Specialism is good or at least a necessary evil in research, but in the classroom we need more widely trained individuals who can convey the essential unity of knowledge. I shall discuss this view only with respect to college education.

The good teacher is a mysterious person, and yet we must know his character before we can prescribe his training. In my view, the good teacher is not distinguished by the breadth of his knowledge, by the lucidity of his exposition, or by the immediate reactions of his students. His fundamental task is not to dispense information, for in this rôle he is incomparably inferior to the written word. His task is to fan the spark of genuine intellectual curiosity and to instill the conscience of a scholar—to communicate the enormous adventure and the knightly conduct in the quest for knowledge.

(I realize that this view of the teacher's function will strike many as austere. They will emphasize the need for sympathetic development of the utmost in each individual, and turn teaching into coaching. I think they do a disservice to mediocre as well as to good minds.)

To this end, the fundamental requirements of the good teacher are competence—how can the incompetent be other than slovenly? —and intellectual vitality—how can the sedentary excite us to bold adventure?

These traits may be acquired by wide reading and deep reflection, without engaging in research and becoming a specialist. But it is an improbable event. It is improbable psychologically: it asks a man to have the energy to read widely and the intellectual power to think freshly, and yet to do no research. He is to acquire knowledge and construct ideas—and keep them a secret. It is improbable scientifically: it asks a man to be competent in his understanding of work that he has had no part in constructing. At least in economics this is almost impossible. There is no book that states the consensus of the profession on the ideas that are changing—and these are naturally the most interesting ideas. Only the man who has tried to improve the ideas will know their strengths and weaknesses. Scholarship is not a spectator sport.

And so, on my view of the good teacher, almost invariably he will engage in research, and if this research is to be professionally respectable, it must be specialized research. Then his standards of intellectual performance are maintained by the critical scrutiny of his fellow scholars. The teacher who does not publish must have the conscience of a saint if he is not to take things easy: to pontificate instead of to reason; to conjecture rather than to know. It is not good for a man to associate only with his inferiors, and students are vastly the teacher's inferior in prestige and status.

When the search for universalism goes so far that men teach outside their general area of competence, the results seem to me completely bad. The students are subjected to diffident reports on the reading of the teacher. The teacher is compelled to spend a huge amount of time acquiring even the minimum knowledge necessary to last out the class hour. He tires of saying that he does not know the answers to reasonable questions, and acquires the habit of

making up answers, and the students come to believe that a nodding acquaintance with many subjects is the earmark of the educated man.

The Last Stand

Even those who find the foregoing arguments convincing will refuse to welcome their message. Why do they cling to the goal of the universal mind?

Partly it is moon-reaching. It would indeed be fine to know many disciplines, I suppose, although heaven knows the ground shifts fast enough in debates even now. It would also be fine to have a salary of $24,000 a year, every six months.

Partly too, it is a humble confession of every man that he failed to learn many things he would now cherish, and feels that with a broader training these painful gaps in his knowledge would be smaller and (what is more doubtful) that he would still know all he does now of his specialty. Yet such gaps in knowledge are inevitable so long as men are free to change their interests and work, to say nothing of deficiencies of elementary and secondary education.

And partly, too, it is a recognition of the sad fact that the most consummate mastery of a specialty may not prevent a man from playing the fool in other areas. We hope that the lessons of logic and evidence are universal in their applicability, but they seem to have a tendency to stick to their subject matter. At least we find it all too easy to name specialists whose logical ability and standards of evidence collapse when they step outside their specialties. But this is a defect of the man, not of his training and work. He lacks a general intelligence even if he has a partial genius. Specialism does not cause his deficiency; rather it tends to restrict him to the area where the deficiency is not present.

Are we, then, to become a race of guilds? Are we to converse easily and fruitfully with our fellow specialists but to be overcome by gauche silences in our association with other kinds of specialists? We can easily avoid this outcome. Let us all specialize a little in one field—it does not matter whether it is romantic music or interplanetary communication or the fruit fly or judicial review. Then

we shall have a common meeting ground on which to have the pleasant and profitable jousts of knowledge and wit, and on which we can form some estimate of the quality of a man. I leave to the specialists in social communication the selection of the precise field.

MAN THINKING AND STUDENT CHEATING

By WILLARD K. WYNN
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When those ninety cadets at West Point were caught on a cheating spree last summer, the whole nation was reportedly shocked. But when Senator Lester Hunt proposed that the Academy's faculty be investigated, only one man was reportedly shocked—General Collins, Army Chief of Staff.

Most teachers probably shrugged their shoulders at the Hunt proposal and passed it off with some such remark as, "Another Senator with sour stomach!" A few teachers doubtless agreed that the Senator's proposal came from something more substantial and higher up than a sour stomach. Without knowing the Senator or the reasoning behind his proposal, I should like to assume that his suggestion came from an understanding of our methods of teaching and a sincere desire to get at the roots of wholesale student cheating. And, with less fear of error, I should like to assume that the West Point faculty is not radically different in pedagogy from the faculties of other standard American colleges. Granting these two assumptions and interpreting the Senator's proposal as an indictment against our teaching methods, we are now ready to accept the challenge on a nation-wide basis with the object of seeing where his proposal might lead if it were carried out.

First, let's examine some common teaching practices in an attempt to decide whether or not the acts of teachers who give questions that make cheating easy is an offense, and, if so, whether or not such an offense is comparable with that of students' cheating. Next, let's examine four common teaching methods that seem to invite cheating, and with them suggest changes in these methods. Finally, let's consider the possible results of such changes if put into practice.

The promptness with which the public condemns students who cheat (or is it students who get caught cheating?) and disregards teachers' responsibility in the matter suggests that only the students are guilty of an offense. So if we insist on keeping the question to the dead level of popular ethics, teachers are without offense in this matter. But it seems that if teaching deserves the dignity of a profession it does so largely by subscribing to and practicing a code of ethics higher than that adhered to by the nonprofessional public. Because we bind ourselves with no oath, such as the Hippocratic Oath of the medical profession, does this mean that we are ethically bound by nothing more substantial than public opinion?

At least one quality has been reiterated and insisted on by all eminent teachers from Socrates to Russell. Never have I seen this quality seriously doubted by our profession as fundamental. It is, in Emerson's phrase, "Man Thinking," which, he says in "The American Scholar," does not mean man "in the degenerate state, when, the victim of society, he tends to become a mere thinker, or, still worse, the parrot of other men's thinking." From here on, Mr. Emerson explains the meaning and obligations of "Man Thinking." Since no scholar or teacher, as far as I know, has ever denied this as a worthy precept of our profession, we seem to run little risk in accepting it as the basis for our code of ethics, which is higher than the public seems to demand of us.

II

If this precept is acceptable as a basis for our conduct, we are ready to examine some common teaching methods that make cheating easy, in an effort to decide whether such methods are an offense. "Man Thinking" in the Emersonian sense is not man taking his ease. *Thinking* is hard work in any language. The common practice of asking questions that not only can be, but often must be, answered by rote from textbooks or notes is teacher taking his ease, not Teacher Thinking. Teachers at ease are illustrated by the following examples taken from college tests and examinations: "What is Boyle's Law?" "Write the equation for the manufacture of ammonium nitrate." "Draw a diagram of the synapse." "What is a correlative conjunc-

tion?" Giving tests in the form of statements that are supposed to be marked as "true" or "false," but are frequently neither, is another popular way in which we take our ease and invite students to do likewise. The practice of asking the same questions of consecutive classes saves the teacher from thinking more than once—and teaches students the value of collaboration. And one of the surest methods of giving teachers a "constipation of ideas" and students a "diarrhea of words" is that of asking loose, general questions that make definiteness impossible. The first word in such questions is usually *Discuss*, or *Summarize*, or *Comment upon:* "Discuss briefly the most important works of Goldsmith," "Summarize the effects of the Battle of Waterloo," "Comment upon the following economic principles."

The type of test, or examination, given by a teacher is a better test of the teacher than the student. It reflects a teacher's methods, his thinking power, his convictions, and his sense of values. It suggests whether he is "Man Thinking" or is merely "the victim of society" who has become "the parrot of other men's thinking." If it is not considered an offense for a teacher to lead educable students no higher than parrot learning, then doesn't it escape the stigma only because the act is being judged by society's lax standards rather than by a code of ethics high enough to support a profession? Furthermore, do we have any reasonable defense against those who refuse to give teaching the dignity of a profession if we refuse to stigmatize our careless and thoughtless teaching methods as an offense?

Students who cheat do so because they are seeking a short cut, an easy way to get passing grades, from which credit points are made, for which college degrees are given. It's difficult to understand the justice in condemning immature students for taking their ease, and for having a perverted sense of values, when mature teachers, who have had educational charge of these students since the students were six years old, suffer no disgrace when they have by precept taught students how to take their ease, and that a means (grades, credits, degrees) is greater than the end of character and mental development. Implicit in teaching is a sort of *noblesse oblige* that the profession seems to have joined society in overlooking.

Now let's examine, together with needed changes, four common teaching methods that seem to invite cheating. The only changes to be considered here are those that seem practicable for teachers to make individually or collectively. Changes that would require administrative action, such as the grading system and courses of study, may be even more effective; but as such changes are beyond the departmental or classroom authority of teachers, they are regarded as beyond the objectives of this discussion.

Since it has already been pointed out that man taking his ease, as opposed to "Man Thinking," is a principal way in which cheating is encouraged, then it is obvious that exercises and questions requiring thought rather than rote would help curb cheating. A sort of educational superstition seems to persist among us: It's possible to teach a student to think without the teacher's bothering to do so himself. Thinking is like butter; it has so many substitutes that only he who has worked with and eaten butter a long time is sure when it isn't butter. While dairymen have seen to it that butter substitutes are labeled as such, educators have been less zealous, and have concocted and accepted so many substitutes for thinking that they are no longer sure of what thought is. Emerson, in "The American Scholar," has so cogently made this distinction that we must accept most of the responsibility for the confusion. With necessary elaborations, he says, "Man Thinking" is genuine; man "in the degenerate state . . . a mere thinker," is spurious.

If the questions previously quoted from college tests and examinations are again referred to, it will be noticed that they have two qualities in common: they are based on isolated facts and they can be correctly answered by isolating memory from thought. Psychologists and common sense have agreed at least on one thing, that exercising rote can improve rote but, as such, has little or nothing to do with "Man Thinking" or mental development. If, for example, Boyle's Law is worth anything more than a grade, it must be forced from its isolated compartment and understood, brought up against a physical problem not solved in the textbook and then used as a solution. To do this requires thought from the teacher and from the student. If a "correlative conjunction" be worth knowing at all, it surely must be worth knowing as a

means of clear expression of thought, not as an isolated definition that can be scribbled on the cuff or scribbled by rote on a softening cortex. Questions that require thought are, I believe, invariably questions that require the association of ideas, and since ideas often vary with experience, it is unlikely and undesirable that a solution be reached exactly in the same way by all individuals.

This brings us to another common practice that *gives* teachers their ease and students their grades, the practice of requiring closed textbooks. I have for some time now been asking this question of teachers whose subjects vary from stress and strain on metals to educational psychology: Is it educationally necessary to have students close their books, especially during tests and examinations? So far I have found only one or two teachers who say they don't require closed books, but the vast majority have apparently either never thought of the question or defend closed books by reasons so remote from education that I miss the connection. Every teacher has enough self-respect to want to keep his course from being a farce. If books are open no teacher can hold his self-respect and ask questions that can be copied from the book. That is too much like collaboration in cheating. But any teacher who dares let students use their books during a test must at least think enough to make the use of a book only a tool for shaping thought and not a parrot cawing others' thoughts. The evil that good books do is indeed limitless. Some teachers even require that college compositions be written with dictionaries closed! Much has been said about organized education failing to equip students for life, but nothing more conclusive has been said on this failure than one screaming fact: In the world a person is foolish if he doesn't use books whenever they might help him pass life's tests, but in school and college a student is disgraced if he is caught using books to pass his tests.

Just as we misuse books to discourage "Man Thinking," we also often misuse lectures to do the same. Obviously, the lecture is just as effective in short-circuiting thought as the book if the student is encouraged to use his notes to parrot other men's thinking. As a rule, lecturers are more concerned with persuading than convincing, more interested in talking than listening. It's a rare lecturer who willingly suffers interrupting questions from

the class, just as it's a rare class that will dare interrupt with questions. It's easier to talk without being questioned and to listen without questioning. But conviction only comes by encouraging and exercising the freedom of rebuttal; whereas persuasion comes more often through the power of grades than the cogency of lectures. Perhaps the highest challenge to teachers is that of conducting a class discussion without dominating it or letting students disrupt it, yet steadily moving toward the central objective. Such orchestration of a class is the result of "Man Thinking," and will go far toward discouraging students from parroting their undigested notes for no better reason than that Polly wants a cracker.

The final suggestion to make cheating more difficult is thoroughness. To be even reasonably thorough in all the material we are usually expected to cover is clearly impossible, but to be reasonably thorough in a few things we cover is not. To be superficial in all is indeed man "in the degenerate state." Since it's not the state of "Man Thinking," superficiality is easy and tempting. But only superficial questions can come from a superficial course and only superficial answers are encouraged by superficial questions. It is less important what material a teacher chooses to treat with reasonable thoroughness than it is to acquaint students with the ways of thoroughness. For example, thoroughness demands that one be definite rather than general, that one digest facts into understanding rather than ingest them for examination. It leads to creative thinking rather than to satiety. A rule, law, or formula that is studied thoroughly is not a rule to be recited from memory or a rule to be used only in solving a problem that has already been solved in the book or on the board. But like the word that rises simultaneously with a thought, a rule thoroughly understood rises simultaneously with any problem under its power. The problem will often require work and time for its solution, but a connection has been made with a means of solution, and no longer is the problem or the rule looked at as an isolated fact. So it is that thoroughness makes possible appropriate associations, which is the way of creative thought. No mind has yet devised a means of cheating its way to creative thought, and there can be little demand for devising additional means as long as superficiality is an orthodox method of teaching.

III

Now what would be the likely results if these four preceding methods of discouraging cheating were persistently and rigorously practiced in all our colleges? The first result would most likely be an alarming number of failing students. Not only would those students fail who had depended on cheating, but also many of that larger group would fail who, by rote, had learned only to parrot other's thoughts. The second result might be one of three possibilities, all of which would depend on college administrators and educational philanthropists. If, upon seeing the first devasting result among students, the administrators and philanthropists lacked conviction and courage to support the teachers, orders would be given "to modify the innovations." Such orders would mean in plain English to revert to the former methods of parrot training, and the experiment would end. But if college administrators and philanthropists had courage and conviction to support the teachers, then two other possibilities would result: teachers would be out of work for lack of students, or so many students would have to repeat their courses that additional teachers would have to be employed to meet the emergency.

But if all these seemingly insuperable difficulties were met and colleges persisted in this "Man Thinking" program, ultimately the plan would work its way up through graduate schools and down through grammar schools. Even though this leavening would increase the whole lump of "Man Thinking," it would almost surely reduce to a fraction the total number of people who are now being *given* an "education." This would be such a serious blow to our national pride in what we call "democratic education" that I strongly suspect if we cleared all other hurdles this one would throw us. In other words, any power that would substantially reduce the number of Americans who are annually being labeled "educated" would be condemned as an evil power, a serious menace to our American way of life, a communist.

We have now investigated Senator Hunt's revolutionary proposal that cheating be reduced by investigating the teaching

faculty. But before we teachers rush into practicing the remedy for cheating here outlined, it might be wise to introduce to an appropriate Senate Committee this "Man Thinking."

He may be a stranger, and he looks dangerous.

THE ENGLISH PROFESSOR AND HIS NATURAL ENEMIES[1]

By ROGER P. McCUTCHEON
Tulane University

Within the ramparts of the academic citadel English professors have many enemies and few friends. Ours is the job of imposing minimum but temporary standards of literacy upon the student body. It is a job which with the vast expansion of college enrollments and the lowering of cultural standards has become ever more difficult and unhappy. When I finished high school the forty students who had been freshmen with me had dwindled to eight. We all had taken the same rigorous classical curriculum: four years of Latin, four years of English, four years of mathematics, three years of German. Those whose talents were not suited to this narrow discipline had perforce dropped out. Happier times have now come, and since no American child must ever know failure, our public high schools promote and graduate 100% of those who will but continue to attend. In other words, a high school diploma is no longer the result of any selective process.

The disappearance of Latin from the high school list of studies may not be disastrous, of course. As English professors, however, most of us would agree that ignorance of Latin prevents one from full understanding and enjoyment of our English grammar and vocabulary. Another almost complete gap in the culture of our college freshmen is found in their lack of knowledge of the Bible. Since that great library has ceased to be read in the American homes, present-day Americans look blank at every biblical reference.

At this point it may seem that I am arguing for a return of the old classical disciplines; I do not mean to be so foolishly unreal-

[1] This paper is an adaptation of an address given at the Texas Conference of College Teachers of English, at Abilene, Texas, March 18, 1950.

istic as that. All I wish to point out is that some knowledge of Latin and of the Bible is valuable if not indispensable for literary study, and that the disappearance of this knowledge has complicated the problems of the English teacher. That Latin disappeared mainly because it was difficult and was thereby a barrier for too many students may of course be debatable. One recalls Stephen Leacock's remark that "my friend the professor of Greek tells me that the study of Greek has made him what he is today; this is a very serious charge, if true." At any rate, Latin has gone, and those who do not have it will never quite be persuaded to believe how much they are missing.

II

In my opinion, the schools of Education have earned a sinister position among the natural enemies of the English professors. Long ago these blithe spirits, serpent-like in their wisdom but by no means as harmless as doves, got a stranglehold on the machinery by which our teachers are certified. They have utilized this control more often to insure adequate population in their Education classes than to serve the best interests of our schools. For instance, in many states it is now virtually impossible for a high school teacher of English to take a master's degree with English as a major subject. The major must be in Education, and the real reason for this requirement is to provide a substantial if reluctant class enrollment. Many believe that it is now too late to oppose this pernicious system, the educationists being too firmly entrenched to be dislodged. I am not yet persuaded that the battle has been totally lost, for the very good reason that we have not yet begun to fight. We have expressed violent opinions, but have actually done nothing. There is, at least, a chance that the public might listen to us if we were to present our case.

Among the educational devices which have come in to lighten professorial labor by abolishing the need to make any value-judgments about examination papers is the multiple-choice question. It is the present delight of the testing agencies. Its use begins early in the grades and continues even in the graduate school. It simplifies life for so many worthy people that to criticize it may

seem really uncharitable. Yet its widespread use has deprived students of the valuable discipline and practice required in answering an essay-type examination. That many students nowadays reach college without ever having written a paragraph or even a complete sentence on an examination paper will seem incredible only to the inexperienced. Skillful teachers used to take considerable pains in preparing questions which would require the student to reorganize the information presented in the course, to see it in new relations so that the questions became a liberator of the student's thought. A discussion or essay-type question brings into play and calls forth powers which to the English professor are significant. True, it is more difficult to grade; and some students will always take advantage of an essay question by covering their ignorance under a multitude of words. But the multiple-choice question can after all test information only. It cannot examine taste, except on the lowest levels; it makes no pretense at value-judgments. That its overuse has diminished important training in thought and in composition is, I believe, true beyond any doubt.

III

But a more dangerous enemy to the English profession is to be found within our profession itself, in that highly vocal group known as the new critics. Basically, there is much justice in some of the contentions of this group. Philological methods and the methods of literary history, the two major disciplines hitherto used in our graduate schools, have discouraged studying a piece of literature as a work of art. The new critics have been magnificently right in insisting that a student should read a poem and not read about a poem.

It has been pointed out, of course, that the newness of the new criticism is new only to those who, like some of the new critics, despise the mere facts of literary history. But at the risk of being pedantic, let me quote Coleridge: "A work of art should contain in itself the reason why it is so and not otherwise." This happens to be an excellent statement of the doctrine of organic unity, which has been hailed as a doctrine first revealed by these new prophets. If Coleridge did not clearly demand irony and tension as tests of

poetry, it may be that these are virtues too artificial to be taken seriously.

Then there is the evident objection on the part of the new critics to any poetic expression which is tainted with emotion. Only that poetry which is intricately stated and curiously involved suits their dialectic. Donne and Yeats are their first choices; Shelley is too vulgarly emotional. The climate the new critics prefer is so dry you can't feel it. Living on such arid heights, the new critics have sometimes lost their humanity. At least, they neglect such practical considerations as the response of the intelligent public to absurdity.

The elevation of obscurity into a major literary virtue is one of their chief accomplishments. The devices by which the new critics peel off layer after layer of meaning are ingenious, one must admit. But the vocabulary they use has become a jargon, for which a ridiculous glossary was recently prepared. The group have been behaving very much like members of a high school fraternity. With humorless solemnity they go through their rituals and give their passwords, absorbed in themselves, disdaining the rest of us, and in general displaying qualities more adolescent than adult.

Two results of this movement demand elaboration. The control exerted by the new critics is wide and can well become vicious. They control the editorial policy of several important journals which print poetry and which influence widely the critical reception of any poem. A poet who wishes their praise must follow their formulas. They are in a position to make or break a poetical reputation, and it is not entirely clear from their record that they deserve this responsibility or will wield it justly. What reception would *John Brown's Body* receive today? Or even *Spoon River Anthology*?

A secondary result is beginning to be discovered in all of our graduate schools. The dialectic the new critics teach is at first overpowering. It strikes many immature students as the only way to approach literature. To discover meanings in two lines of a cryptic poem thus becomes the absorbing task of a lifetime. There is no time and no need to read other poems or poets or to learn any literary history. Consequently, many of our students have read much less widely than they should and know much less

than they should; indeed, they are only semi-literate. But when you try to illumine their darkness, they are contemptuous. They and they alone have the light, and it is we who may have read widely, but obviously not wisely, who should be pitied.

The low place now given to the imagination is in part another result of the new criticism. The Romantics may well have overpraised imagination, in their efforts to rescue it from the neoclassical frigidities. But we need not degrade imagination unduly. If the new critics are against us, Wordsworth and Keats are for us. "I am certain of nothing," goes that familiar passage in a letter of Keats' which it is well to recall, "but of the holiness of the heart's affections, and the truth of imagination."

The absurdities of the new criticism will, I believe, eventually deflate the movement. Already there are signs that the vogue is declining. As Samuel Johnson remarked of a vociferous group in his day: "Truth is a cow that will give these people no more milk; therefore they have gone to milk the bull." But we will not, I hope, forget their very real value as a corrective influence. Also, out of the movement has come one book which seems likely to prove very influential indeed. It is *Theory of Literature*, by Wellek and Warren, published in 1948. This should be read carefully by everyone who calls himself an English teacher. You will find many good things in it, and some with which you cannot agree. For instance, the somewhat drastic statement is made that one should be required to stop teaching in a field as soon as he has written a book in the field, because he will have said all he had to say. But *Theory of Literature* is a truly significant book, and will be referred to often as the programs of our graduate schools come up for inspection and revision.

Another enemy of the English professor is the trend toward mass production, which has had sinister repercussions in the world of books. Have all our many book clubs improved the taste of the reading public? Have they helped provide sensitive readers who will encourage new and experimental writing? Or must the book clubs always be more interested in selecting the sure-fire hits, preferably those with obvious Hollywood appeal? The astronomical royalties from book club adoptions are a very real kind of economic determinant. All publishers aim at this huge market. One

wonders what chance *Walden* or *Ethan Frome* would have today for a book club adoption or even for publication. More important is this question: Would a writer talented enough to write *Ethan Frome* be tempted to spend his energy on a work more likely to be chosen by a book, club?

IV

These, then, are some of our enemies. They are dangerous, well armed and well fortified. They need not, however, terrify us unduly, for ours is no fugitive and cloistered virtue. They are not invulnerable. In our arsenals of enlightenment there are effective weapons.

We English professors still have many advantages on our side. Literature is an art, one of the major arts, we would believe. A book is a pretty tough customer; only those who have never tried it think it easy to burn a book. "Not marble nor the gilded monuments of princes shall outlive this powerful rhyme," and Shakespeare's sonnet has indeed quietly outlasted the drums and tramplings of many conquests.

In the realm of art, chronology has no great significance. To be sure, the newest scientific discovery displaces the older ones. Penicillin is a much better remedy for some diseases than any of the earlier drugs. But Rodin's statues do not make invalid the work of Praxiteles or Phidias. Eugene O'Neill does not supplant Sophocles; Bernard Shaw does not necessarily supplant Shakespeare. The masterpieces we love have their own ways of making our noisy years seem moments in the being of the eternal silence. At a time when all occasions do conspire against us and the individual is being circumscribed from all directions, the literature we profess still offers not an escape—but a rich fulfillment. To borrow from Professor Osgood's title, poetry is a means of grace.

Nor are the arts dead in America in 1951. In music, there has been a very great improvement in taste, paralleling the great growth in symphony orchestras and in the opportunities to hear music. Our high school choruses today sing Bach and the Elizabethan madrigals, and would be properly contemptuous of the programs of the college glee clubs a generation ago. In World War

I, it was not patriotic to play German music; in World War II, we did not define patriotism so narrowly or childishly. The other day in the Chicago Art Institute I visited the great Vincent Van Gogh collection and was pleased to note the large and diverse crowds listening to the museum lecturers. I believe that there is an audience waiting for us as well as for the musicians and the painters. To be sure, literature is not so universal an art as music; there will always be a minority to whom our ample libraries, rich with the spoils of time, will open their volumes in vain.

But our battle is a worthy one, and never more so than today. Science, which so easily monopolizes the attention of the public, expresses itself impersonally and often in some form of the higher mathematics. Science has no primary concern with any human being, unless that human being happens to be exhibit A in a new bio-chemical phenomenon. The social studies, even those dealing with the contemporary scene, are interested in mass movements, and are unconcerned with any single individual. But the humanities, of which literature is not the least, take the individual as their center of interest. To our discipline alone belong the great words of the world: love, hate, despair, courage, hope, faith, beauty. Such terms are memorable and perdurable. Let us use them without cheap or false sentiment and without shame.

EDUCATION AS A SOCIAL SCIENCE

By EDGAR Z. FRIEDENBERG
The University of Chicago

During a time of national crisis as severe as the present, ambivalent attitudes toward the social sciences are likely to be greatly sharpened. On the one hand, as the cost, in young lives and living standards, of errors of perception of the nature of European economy, Asiatic culture, or processes of mass communication increases beyond measure, trustworthy means of attacking social problems are increasingly sought and become more influential. On the other hand, some increase in hostility is to be expected, from a frightened and partially discredited press, and from that portion of our political or business leadership whose public exhortations have derived from sources decidedly remote from the very considerable existing body of social scholarship. Such hostility, if it occurs, will affect all the social sciences, but it will by no means affect them equally. The newer the social science is, the lower its status in the somewhat hierarchical structure of recognized academic disciplines, and, especially, the more technological its character—that is, the more concerned it is with immediate practical application—the more vulnerable it is likely to be.

By all three of these criteria Education must be ranked among the social sciences most likely to be attacked. Formal academic departments of Education have been common in American universities for about forty years only, and they are seldom found in institutions of full university rank in continental Europe. The department does not command the prestige of economics or anthropology, and certainly not that of a natural science. Furthermore, persons with professional training in the field of Education have by now been placed in charge of at least the immediate operation of most of the public primary and secondary educational apparatus of each of the states; they operate the schools in a relationship

which bears more responsibility than economists have for banks, or certainly than political scientists have for politics.

There is, moreover, a special reason why the effectiveness of professional Education may be singled out for especially intense re-examination by the locally active re-examining bodies. We are involved in an ambiguously hostile military relationship with a group of nations who far outnumber us in manpower. This puts the greatest possible burden on American youth. In circumstances where that burden proves insupportable the schools may be blamed. It may be said that the high rate of military rejection for reasons of emotional instability, which, indeed, the country can scarcely afford, is in part a consequence of "coddling" young people—a favorite word of the political and journalistic extreme right in our country. They may be blamed for fostering social criticism and thus impeding emotional acceptance of the values for which America must fight. It is less likely, but more to be feared since partly valid, that the schools will be attacked for failing to develop in American youth enough real understanding of the potentialities of democracy, and of the relationship of our customary way of life to that of other social groups who may nevertheless prefer their own.

But whether these charges are directed against the schools as the instrument of professional Education or not, the discipline can gain wider public support and be put to more flexible use as needed if its origins, development, and character are correctly understood. Like most of the fields of knowledge large enough to constitute a separate department in the conventional organization of a modern college or university, Education is not one specialty, but a great many.

The 1950–1951 *Announcements* of the Division of the Social Sciences of the University of Chicago list the following seven possible fields of specialization within the Department of Education: The School in the Social Order; Educational Psychology; Educational Administration, Organization, and Supervision; Curriculum and Methods; Statistics and Measurement; Adult Education; and Guidance and Personnel Services. Statistics and adult education, however, tend to be treated as technical specialties considerably detached from the main body of American educational

scholarship, though elementary statistical training is included in almost all programs to permit published research to be read intelligently by the educator; they will not be further discussed in this memorandum. The *Announcements* further state that "Students wishing to specialize in elementary, secondary, or higher education will ordinarily do so in connection with one or more of the aforementioned fields." They then list fifteen types of "professional service for which the Department provides preparation through its program . . ." which may be classified into the following larger groups: instructors in academic departments of Education; superintendents, principals, and other administrative officers; specialists in curricular construction and evaluation; specialists in guidance and personnel services; and, of course, teachers.

Thus a contemporary university department of Education of superior prestige states its conception of its function. What is the typical content, however, of the various fields of specialization listed? What trends have there been in such content? Do all receive equal emphasis? What do the insights from each contribute to the professional development of the educator?

II

The field of specialization known at the University of Chicago as "The School in the Social Order" is similar to that more generally known as "Educational Sociology." It is a relatively new field, which had its origin in the social pressures following the the First World War, and received greater emphasis in dealing with the problems which the depression of the thirties created for educators everywhere. While it would be foolish to attempt to trace the emergence to consciousness of an area of human experience to a particular event, it seems evident from reading the literature of the twenties and thirties that the attacks made on liberal thought and academic freedom in the period of reaction following the first war, reaching a zenith in the celebrated Red hunts launched by Palmer as Attorney General, had a great deal to do with the development of explicit awareness of social rôle among educators. The publications in educational sociology of the twenties and early thirties often were characterized

by an odd determination to use the school as if it were an independent agency in the very moment of proving that it was not one. A characteristic title was George S. Counts' pamphlet *Dare the School Build a New Social Order?* (1932). Other representative titles were Bessie L. Pierce's *Citizens Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth* (1933), in which the author noted that the American Legion and the Daughters of the American Revolution were not always enthusiastic supporters of academic freedom and the liberal point of view; H. K. Beale's *Are American Teachers Free?* (1936), in which he concluded that they were not; and a little later, Counts' *The Prospects of American Democracy* (1938) which, the author felt, were scarcely worth considering unless America managed to avoid the centralization of authority and financial control which must necessarily follow involvement in another war. This was also the period when studies of the social composition of school boards in various parts of the country were establishing their middle-class character. An occasional professor of education would include the Soviet Union in his European itinerary, and return baffled at the Soviet unwillingness to permit him to inquire freely into the great strides in the democratization of education which must surely have taken place there. Not all the works in educational sociology were so dissatisfied in tone, however; such standard works as Lloyd Allen Cook's *Community Backgrounds of Education* (1938, rev. 1950) presented widely used, calm analyses of the rôle of the school in the community.

Meanwhile, the really horrible plight of young people in the depression was the subject of much concern, and lent sombre color to the anger suffusing the more general works. Howard M. Bell's American Council on Education study of conditions in Maryland, *Youth Tell Their Story* (1938), and Homer Rainey's *How Fare American Youth* (1937) were heartbreaking accounts of pain and destruction.

By and large, however, there was something wrong with the emotional picture suggested by this work. It was not that it was too pessimistic; the facts, if anything, were even worse than educators then knew. But there was throughout the writings a kind of implicit assumption that Americans, to the extent that they had not involved themselves with a conservative pressure

group, were in general agreement as to what democratic life might be. It was not quite true that the good, politically inexperienced person was contrasted with the irresponsible politician as white to black. But there was the feeling that the American tradition and even the Constitution itself committed the school morally to the support of equal educational opportunity for all, and to equal respect for the personality and needs of all students, and that what was needed to bring these ideals a little closer to realization was wider participation of the citizenry in the educative process and a more complete understanding of existing deficiencies. An active PTA group was regarded as, *per se*, more to be desired than a quiescent one. People who had every conceivable reason to oppose each other were expected to cooperate, and let their ulcers fall where they might.

But results were beginning to emerge from the various typical community studies which could not be reconciled to this assumption concerning the actual rôle of the school. Neither in Yankee City,[1] Prairie City,[2] nor Jonesville[3] could it be claimed that equality of educational opportunity or respect was either sought, claimed or demanded by those in control of school policy. The impact on academic thought was profound. It is not surprising that the work of Warner and associates has been among the most controversial to be published in recent years. Educational sociology, however, was also broadening out to concern itself with issues of a more purely economic or demographic character. In the work of Edwards and Richey[4] there is little emphasis on character development or personality, but a wealth of heavily documented material on the influence of population trends, differential support of education in various parts of the country, and the concentration of economic power on current and future educational problems and policy.

III

Educational psychology, since it includes learning theory,

[1] Warner, W. Lloyd, and Lunt, P. S., *The Status System of a Modern Community* (1942).
[2] Havighurst, R. J., and Taba, Hilda, *Adolescent Character and Personality* (1949).
[3] Warner, W. L., *Democracy in Jonesville* (1949).
[4] *The School in the American Social Order* (1947).

is in a sense as old as Education itself. Certainly, the writings of Pestalozzi or Herbart may be regarded as lying in part within this field. The most influential texts seem to be those published in the nineteen-thirties, either in their original form or as revisions.

Educational psychology grew quite directly out of the experimental psychology of the later nineteenth century, and was concerned with memory, transfer of training, perception, and similar areas of classical psychology. The relationship of these concepts to education is obvious, but the attempt of classical psychologists to be coldly scientific often took the form of attempting to exclude from the processes being studied precisely those elements from which they ordinarily derive importance, as, for example, in testing the memory by use of nonsense syllables. With respect to certain issues, research in educational psychology has had a highly beneficial influence on education. Studies of maturation have presumably put to an end the practice of treating children as though they were adults. Studies of transfer of training have disqualified, though by no means eliminated from popular thought, the doctrine of formal discipline by which Latin, say, or algebra, was held to develop strong mental muscles. The study of personality adjustments, even at the very superficial, normative, and culturally uncritical level of educational psychology, has at least made teachers somewhat more aware of the rôle of emotional factors in learning, and consequently has made schools more humane. But compared to educational sociology, thought in the field of educational psychology seems unsophisticated. Much of the literature suggests that the American middle class ideal of sociability, conformity, and friendliness in the Dale Carnegie sense of the word represents some absolutely desirable norm of adjustment, while quite disregarding the culturally patterned anxieties which they often mask. Educational psychology also lends itself to dichotomous controversies—doubtless in a further effort to imitate the control of variables characteristic of the physical sciences—which seem to correspond to no reality under the sun. Witness, for example, the celebrated nature-nurture controversy as to whether intelligence can or cannot be materially affected by the environment,

or the battle between Behaviorism and Gestalt psychology. But, undoubtedly, the most conspicuous development in the field of educational psychology was the rise and influence of intelligence testing as a universal process in the operation of the school. Beginning with the work of Binet in France during the decade prior to the First World War, the intelligence test movement, providing as it did one more way by which the American parent could tell whether his child was a "success" or not, fell in this country on the most fertile soil imaginable. It was given very great impetus by the use made of intelligence testing on an army-wide scale during the war itself, and for the ensuing quarter century came as close to being standard practice and a source of sacred information as any procedure in the American school. It is still standard practice, but it is no longer thought that the information yielded by it is as significant as formerly. For one thing, the effort to be "scientific" by attempting to exclude from the test anything which has to be formally learned has failed; lower-class children, who approach the very act of test-taking with a different pattern of motives and attitudes, are known to be at a serious disadvantage in all intelligence tests, and Allison Davis and others trying to work out new ways of intelligence testing equally fair to such children are facing a very difficult problem indeed. For a second, pure intelligence as measured in a situation intentionally divested of as much affect as possible is proving to be subject to a limitation when used for counseling purposes analogous to those of the old-fashioned altimeter, which measures height above sea level, when used for aviation. It is, after all, the amount of intellectual clearance above the mountains of one's own conflicts, rather than pure intellectual capacity, which determines performance in important life situations. In the third place, the "homogeneous grouping" of children with comparable levels of intelligence to facilitate instruction has been severely criticized by the Education profession as destroying the quality of democratic life which some feel to provide the most important learnings of the school. Intelligence tests are still as widely used as ever, therefore, but their results are applied very circumspectly to the solution of educational problems.

Educational psychology as a field of specialization therefore

appears to have been something of a transition stage leading on the one hand to the psychologically much more sophisticated study of personality in relation to the educative process characteristic of the field of guidance and personnel services, and on the other to the field of curriculum and methods, where mental measurements and learning are considered, not in isolation, but in relationship to the achievement of educational objectives as specifically and clearly stated as possible. Newer publications, such as Ruth Munroe's *Teaching the Individual* (1942), draw on psychoanalytically derived personality theory, to facilitate very clearly conceived educational tasks.

IV

Educational administration, organization, and supervision is not, of course, a fundamental subdivision of educational theory in the same way that educational sociology and educational psychology are. It is a field of specialization for persons playing a particular rôle in the educative process, and presumably requires fundamental understanding of the other two fields. The field has, however, changed its emphasis since the problem of organization and control of the school first began to receive formal academic attention. Prior to the First World War, and on into the twenties, the principle of line and staff organization characteristic of industry was almost universally accepted without question. There was little critical analysis of the social relationships involving the school, or consideration of the needs of students except as they most narrowly affected the learning of the prescribed curriculum. On the other hand, there was great emphasis on the application of the results of the "scientific" study of education. This was the period when the social sciences were most vigorously attempting to apply the methods of the physical sciences and choosing problems susceptible to quantitative or at least objective modes of analysis in preference to others more subtle though presumably of more importance to them. Specialists in administration concerned themselves with factual analysis of problems of school support; efficient modes of organization—difficult as it must be to appraise the efficiency with which a process is conducted toward an undefined end; legal relationships

to state, county, or school districts; consequences of various modes of promotion, etc. Among the most influential of the authors of the period was Elwood P. Cubberly. Representative of the better texts is his *Public School Administration*, which passed through many editions and revisions. Yet even a comparatively late revision of the work (1929) contains, for example, a sample Teacher Efficiency Score Card and a sample Supervisory Visitation Record—both of a kind to move the prospective teacher to pity and terror—and a multiplicity of charts of "proper" and "improper" modes of organization as well as one of a manufacturing corporation for purposes of comparison.

In more recent years, the viewpoint of the field of educational administration has greatly broadened. The areas of concern, in a sense, remain the same—modern books are still devoted to chapters on the relations between federal, state, and county or city governments and education, to school finance and business management, to the selection of personnel and maintenance of effective working relationships with it. But there has been a great increase in the awareness of the delicacy and complexity of the human relationships involved, and the conviction that students and teachers must experience democracy in their school relationships if students are to be prepared for participation in a democratic society. As an example, the following paragraph from Jesse B. Sears' *Public School Administration* (1947), one of the very best of the newer publications, is cited:

> Each school system has its own traditions . . . pet prejudices . . . interstaff strifes, and each public has its own ways of dealing with school people. These local forces color all problems and set certain limits to management that have to be dealt with. . . . The problem is to develop policies that use the best, thwart the worst, move toward a sound practice and never sacrifice all to save a minor point. It is merely the method of democracy with as much scientific light applied as the situation can stand. In personnel administration a situation often seems to demand compromise and more compromise, but is, instead, merely one that needs scientific, open and above-board treatment.

The author of this work, of course, gives much more specific information and advice, but the passage is representative of the tone and viewpoint of the book.

Since, when one thinks of a school in the ordinary way, one usually thinks first of what kinds of things are taught in it, the evolution of the modern curriculum is difficult to distinguish as a process from the more general history of education. Curriculum theory is thus somewhat more diffuse than the areas of educational psychology and sociology.

Education, like physics, appeared to be moving into the twentieth century bound to the peaceful evolution of a conservative tradition. Like physics, it also bore already within its midst a theoretician whose views were to change its character so completely as to leave it partially unrecognizable in structure and purpose. In 1896, John Dewey founded his experimental elementary school. Developing his educational theory rigorously from the philosophical formulation later to be called the experimentalist position, Dewey found himself relating experience to the educative process in an intimate, individualized way which was unique for each child and mystical for none. He did not merely provide for individual differences; he used the unique experience of each individual as the material from which knowledge and reality could alone be created. He did not abdicate a position of authority from which students could be coerced or disciplined in order to "make us do what we want to today"; conformity imposed from without for its own sake found no source in his philosophy and its disciplinary value became an irrelevant myth. Dewey's publications, however, indicated as have few in the educational field that he knew what he was doing in the strongest sense of the phrase; that is, that he was operating within a completely designed frame of reference in a consistent manner and toward explicit ends. The ends were thoroughly democratic. There have been educational theorists far more explicitly socially conscious than Dewey. There have been none whose doctrine was more certain, for rigorous internal reasons, to lead to the enhancement of democratic values.

Dewey's influence on education has been profound. His writings are complex, abstract, and subject to misinterpretation; his name, like those of God and Dean Acheson, has been linked to doctrines with which he could hardly agree. Despite the vituperation to which it has been subjected, the Progressive

Education Association seems to have come closest to realizing, in the institutions most accurately modelled to its doctrines, those implications. The "Eight Year Study" conclusively established that the social objectives of Progressive Education were attained without any sacrifice of subsequent measurable college academic achievement. It is also true that the doctrines of Progressive Education as usually understood permitted, though they did not logically require, a particular abuse. This was *not*, as is commonly supposed, indulgence of the child's antisocial behavior, although such, when it occurred, was not punished. It was rather neglect of the feelings of anger, fear, or loneliness which the bad behavior of children signifies; even rather extreme expressions of dysphoria were sometimes greeted with determined smiles and efforts to force the establishment of an appearance of democratic group activity including the miscreant on equal terms. So basic a falsification of human relations makes the whole exploration of reality by experimental means impossible, as anyone who has ever gotten up courage to express an unpopular opinion in a meeting, only to be greeted by an obstinate refusal to recognize that a disagreement exists, realizes. Yet this kind of social control, suborning simultaneously the child's opportunity to test limits and feel accepted as the kind of person he is, and the relationship of progressive education to experimentalist philosophy, seems to have been common.

For whatever combination of causes, the Progressive Education movement, as a movement, is not a live issue at the present time. Its influences, especially at the elementary level, remain, rendered less naïve by a more appropriate and dynamic conception of human development, emanating ultimately from Freudian sources, and, more recently, from the kind of realistic thinking about status relationships contributed by Warner, Davis, and others which has already been mentioned. In secondary education, in which the influence of Dewey was never quite as marked, a movement, espoused by educational leaders who have debated the merits of their case with Dewey in the professional press, has attained marked influence. This is the Hutchins' position, which reasserts citizenship as the prime goal of education, and draws its curriculum primarily from sources esteemed as models of intellectual activity.

The orientation has drawn explicity from Aristotle's tenet that rationality is the distinguishing characteristic of Man, but lately seems more to base itself on the administrative device of assigning the intellect as the province of the school while reserving jurisdiction over other aspects of personality to various cultural and social institutions. The emphasis on intellectual development, rather than that of total personality, as the function of education, is, however, fundamental to Hutchins' position and is quite appropriately designated by Deweyites as symbolic of the fundamental disagreement between him and Dewey. Although the University of Chicago College, on which the influence, among other factors, of Hutchins' thinking has played continuously for many years includes the two final years of high school, there are few directly traceable influences of his position in public high school practice. But the influence of Hutchins and the Chicago plan has nevertheless been very great because of his leadership in recent developments in general education. The Chicago plan offers a four-year program of general education terminating at the end of the conventional second year of college, which seems therefore to belong by precedent in the rubric of secondary education. There are no electives in the plan, and the courses are not survey courses, but highly organized interpretive syntheses of very broad fields of human knowledge, drawing, so far as possible, on original publications of highest quality as examples. Vocational elements are deliberately excluded from the curriculum; all specialization begins afterward. The protagonists of the Chicago plan believe that even those who can aspire to but two years of education beyond high school would do well to choose this plan, but the demand of the American public for vocational education at some point seems to have blocked acceptance of this. It has, however, begun to influence the mode of organization of other four-year colleges, in which a lower division of two years, devoted to a program of general education with sharply reduced opportunities for student election of courses, followed by specialization in the ensuing two years, is being adopted. The most notable partial adoption of the plan is, of course, that of Harvard, whose report, *General Education in a Free Society* (1945), is a highly significant educational document. Meanwhile, the program of the General College of the University

of Minnesota, which has been responsible for an interesting series of educational publications, and which stemmed somewhat pedantically from certain influences of the Progressive Education movement, has been less successful. Other colleges with unconventional curricula, such as Antioch, with its famous work-study plan, and Sarah Lawrence, with its highly sophisticated adaptation of the curriculum to student need, perhaps reflect more truly the influences of aspects of the educational theory of Dewey. Sarah Lawrence is responsible for a series of publications characterized by their especially insightful use of principles of dynamic psychology of psychoanalytic origin in relation to educational problems.

V

Evaluation of student achievement, though usually included within the field of curriculum for administrative purposes, is a technical specialty in its own right, and one whose theory has been developed with a rather high degree of consistency and detail for some time. Fundamental to the conception of evaluation is that of the definition of educational objectives in terms of student behavior. In order to construct an examination in a manner consistent with acceptable theory of evaluation, it is essential to begin, not with the content of the courses to be covered by the examination, but with the things which it is hoped students will be able to *do* as a consequence of having taken them. These must be stated as completely and precisely as possible, and examination situations devised either to require students to do these things, or to do other things whose relationship to the stated objectives sought is either demonstrable or logically apparent. This sounds more like low-order common sense than educational theory, but it is very likely that, if you recall the kind of evidence which you yourself presented in substantiation of your claim to a degree, you will find it to have been much less closely related than this to any definable educational goal. Evaluation theory has provided a tool whereby an institution can be more certain what its certificates mean if it wishes. There is, also, a considerable body of technical information on the construction of achievement tests, the determination of their reliability, the making of item analyses and

other tasks involved in sound examination design. Excellent, though by no means recent, general works giving good attention to theory and much exemplary material are Ralph W. Tyler, *Constructing Achievement Tests* (1934) and H. E. Hawkes, E. F. Lindquist, and C. R. Mann, *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations* (1936).

Recent trends in evaluation have been concerned less with modification of basic theory than with its extension in practice to include the appraisal of student achievement of subtler objectives. For many years schools have given what, in the absence of reliable techniques of evaluation, could scarcely be more than lip service to such goals as "the development of democratic attitudes," "the development of emotional maturity," "appreciation of great literature and music," and many others, equally inaccessible to appraisal by ordinary paper and pencil tests. With the development of new techniques of controlled observations and projective tests, which constitute powerful additions to the modern psychological armamentarium, evaluation of the attainment of such objectives is slowly becoming possible. These techniques have found more rapid acceptance in the fields of the military [as reported, for example, in the O.S.S. publication *Assessment of Men* (1948)], business, and industry than in education; and within education, have been applied more to the selection of students than to the appraisal of their educational progress. It cannot be denied that the possibilities of the techniques, in the hands of cruel or rigid persons or special interest groups, are horrifying. It is no longer necessary to rely on the crudities of informal observation by colleagues or supervisors to be certain that the persons selected as policemen will enjoy beating up criminals, or that foremen will be free of disturbing tendencies to side with labor rather than with management in possible disputes. Science could now permit us to be virtually certain from the outset. Modern psychological methods are already good enough to permit the educational ladder to be closed off somewhere below the top to persons whose character structures would predispose them to social attitudes in disfavor with the current *élites* of our culture, quite without regard to any possible record of past overt political behavior or social action. Where, however,

one is actually concerned with evaluation—that is, with the level of student attainment of stated and accepted educational objectives as a consequence of participation in a program of education—the new possibility of precise observation of progress toward subtler objectives seems all to the good.

VI

The last specialism in Education listed in the *Announcements* of the University of Chicago, "Guidance and Personnel Services," seems to be the stormiest. The field seethes with activity and controversy and is centered around issues which penetrate as deeply as possible into questions of human and social dynamics on the one hand, and values on the other. It is a field whose pioneers were quite clearly in no position to anticipate the responsibilies into which their interests were so rapidly to lead them, and in which, as happy consequence, genuine professional growth has been very rapid. It is a field in which, to a greater degree perhaps than elsewhere in Education, there is nothing, or a lot less than nothing, to be gained by a near miss. The function of formal education is to a considerable degree ceremonial; if one learns absolutely nothing from one's courses one may still hope for a degree at the end of them, and a degree opens certain doors and has a certain cash value. But guidance and personnel services deal directly with the individual's chances for personal happiness; no rationalization can attribute any good to an ineffective job, and a really bad job may, and sometimes quite simply does, contribute to madness or suicide.

What actions the pedagogue brought him so abruptly into contact with the human spirit—the last thing, one sometimes feels, with which his history might have prepared him to deal? What changes in the social rôle of the school vested in it responsibilities which either had not previously been recognized, or had been assigned to other agencies? Youngsters have always had needs, and the drama and novel of the past give us little reason for thinking that the family was ever consistently more proficient at meeting them than it is now. Medea, Lear, Theobald Pontifex, Willy Lomond—none of these was gifted with that facility in the pa-

rental rôle which might have insured his children's emotional welfare. Why did society not respond to the difficulties each represents with some formal provision?

Many factors are involved in the answer to this question. For one thing, the modern conception of a neurotic personality would not be possible except to people accustomed to making the most uncompromising distinction between what is verifiably empirically real, and people's interpretation of reality, which may be to a greater or lesser degree fantastic. This condition, however, has only obtained within the past century since scientific method came to be accepted as the arbiter of the Western World. For another, present-day interdependence and the closing of frontiers generally has left less scope for eccentricity. For a third, even if the family was never a demonstrably competent institution, it was, prior to modern technological development, much more influential and self-contained. Nobody ever had a worse father than Elizabeth Barrett, but there was very little that could be done about him.

There are more specific factors. Vocational guidance preceded adjustment counseling as an educational responsibility in American schools by a decade or more; today, it has not yielded place, but as more is learned about why people fail at their jobs the two fields are becoming indistinguishable. But vocational guidance is obviously not undertaken by a school except in a society in which schools reach a wide segment of the population, and in which it is accepted that one's vocation should be at least partially determined by aptitude rather than birth or social position. (One must note here, however, that vocational guidance does *not* assume freedom of choice or mobility; it is precisely when people are being drafted into jobs that vocational guidance had better be good.)

Yet another factor responsible for the late appearance of counseling services in schools is the recency with which any comprehensive theory of the dynamics of the human personality was developed. Psychoanalysis as a therapeutic technique remains controversial, or at least subject to heavy, if irrational, attack. But there is at present no theory of human feeling rival to that which psychoanalysis has supplied. Pre-Freudian psychological thinking provided no general theory of human personality to be set

aside. It seems very likely that what is so threatening about the psychoanalytic method and its fruits is not the ugly head of sex, which cannot be altogether unfamiliar in any family situation, but the application of empirical techniques to problems of human motivation, which had previously been the sphere of precept and coercion. For—and there is perhaps no more bitter statement which can be made about the race of man—the act of trying, as an official or professional task, to understand people—not to manipulate, not to dominate, not to save, and not to re-create in one's own image, but simply to understand—is a new kind of act. From the dawn of history to the twentieth century, only good friends, spouses, parents, and great artists even tried it.

Counseling and guidance services began with an effort to understand—a naïve effort. Taking the new psychometrics of educational psychology as a point of departure, the counseling of the late twenties and most of that of the thirties shared the preoccupation with the quantitative characteristic of the professional Education of the time. The counseling of individuals opened with their exposure to a battery of tests. The intelligence test, carefully standardized and purified of cultural content, was of paramount importance. But there were others—each as isolated in what it sought to measure as possible—each statistically ingenious. There were mechanical aptitude tests, of the sort which a psychology friendly to the job analysis and time-motion studies might be expected to favor. There were vocational interest tests, in which students were given an opportunity to indicate liking, indifference, or repugnance toward a long list of activities, including many of a nonvocational kind, and their pattern of preferences compared to that obtained by questioning successful members of various fields. Thus, if it had been found (it wasn't) that successful doctors tended to like bridge, fishing, and baseball, and to have intelligence quotients clustered around a score of 130, while rejecting walking alone in the woods as a possible way of relaxing, a student who also made these responses could be advised that he might expect to find medicine congenial and be successful at it. The emotions were similarly handled; students would be confronted with a long check-list providing an opportunity to indicate whether they often, seldom, or never,

daydreamed, dated (in the coy general phrase usually used) "a member of the opposite sex," or felt afraid when talking to others. One instrument, designed to be presented as an "interest test" bore the cryptic letters "M-F" inconspicuously on its booklet and was intended to appraise the masculinity or feminity of the person executing it. After all desired information had been gathered, sorted, and interpreted, it was possible for the counselor to feel quite thoroughly convinced that he knew what the student should do next. In a conference, or several, if the student was stubborn, the counselor would then tell him; if the good advice were not taken, the school had done its best and the matter could be handled as an administrative or disciplinary problem.

The field of counseling and personnel was not, however, limited to face-to-face relationships with individuals presenting problems. The very amorphousness of function of the American high school and college, together with the growing awareness of the educational significance of the extra-curriculum, led to efforts to bring some sort of structure to the rapid, random motion of students. Characteristic of the middle thirties was an approach which was psychologically eclectic but suffused with determination to make the school a veritable hive of democratic living.

Yet this state of affairs could not endure. For, as expressed above, while the consequences of bad teaching are futile, the consequences of ineffective personnel work are intolerable. It may be that student personnel services, like sewage disposal plants, are not needed until life attains a high level of complexity. But again like sewage disposal plants, once they become necessary, nobody will accept excuses about them for long. Even if a college administration has no shred of feeling for students, a Heirens case or a Bednasek case are very unpleasant experiences for it; a high school or college whose conception of adolescent need and motives is too unrealistic to provide reasonably effective guidance to student life is well on its way to being blown out of town by a series of explosive scandals, or starved out by loss of attendance. Realistic, empirical observation of the dynamics of student life and interrelationship in schools, which mirror the tensions and anxieties of contemporary life, had to come.

In all honesty, one must admit that it came faster than one might

have feared; the profession, for once, pulled up its socks and gave quick service. Already in the thirties educators were addressing themselves with clarity and objectivity to the question of what kids were really like. The first of the best books—books like D.A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process* (1938) or C. Zachry, *Emotion and Conduct in Adolescence* (1940) were works of art, in a sense, but they were executed by good craftsmen who knew what their job was and why they were doing it. New techniques of investigation were devised, borrowed from other disciplines, or stolen. Sociometric techniques which actually did reveal and describe group dynamics, the structure and function of cliques, and the quality of participation in student life were developed. The projective tests —the TAT and various modifications of it, and the Rorschach, chiefly—began to be used to provide a picture of the dynamics and content of personality, rather than a list of traits or a series of scores. Mention has already been made of the investigations of Warner, Havighurst, and others of the social rôle of the school, and the social life within it, and the discrepancies to the ideal of democratic life which they reveal; the insight which these contribute to a forthright effort to help students deal with the American process of socialization, of which the school is the chosen instrument, has been inestimable. The process continues, and seems to deal steadily with more complete wholes. A recent publication, Janet Agnes Kelley's *College Life and the Mores* (1949), is a valid and novel attempt to use certain concepts of anthropology to yield a more meaningful interpretation of the rôle of custom, totem, and tabu in the educative experience of students.

But undoubtedly the most scarifying controversy in the field has been that precipitated by Carl R. Rogers, whose book, *Counseling and Psychotherapy* (1942), marks the founding of the school of client-centered counseling. Mr. Rogers is by no means an obscure bird, and it would be unfair to say of his scholarly presentation of his viewpoint that he clamored the livelong night, yet, some say, the earth was feverous and did shake at its publication. Since, the field of counseling has been sharply divided into two rather unequal parts. Whether the method of client-centered psychotherapy can justify its claim to equal the achievements of psychoanalysis in deep therapy with severely disturbed persons or not—

and Rogers and his co-workers have sought and are seeking the most rigorous experimental tests of it—its influence has definitely diminished the vitality of the older test 'em and tell 'em school.

VII

With the discussion of counseling and personnel services, the analysis of the field of Education according to the specialisms, recognized by the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, is concluded. The use of this frame of reference is, of course, an arbitrary choice. Like all arbitrary choices, it has certain consequences which are adventitious to the task at hand—in this case, the exclusion of certain possible fields of specialization which would have been prominently recognized had some other school been used as a basis. The omission of History of Education as a specialism by this department, though it is common elsewhere, does not seem to have had any particularly serious consequences for this memorandum, since the content of the field is obvious.[1] Perhaps more serious is the omission of educational philosophy—a fairly active field, and one in which the quality of publication is usually high. The writings of Dewey, whose contribution to Education is stressed in the memorandum, of course fall in this field. Writings in it are usually classified by purely philosophical convention, as experimentalist or pragmatist, realist, idealist, and Catholic or scholastic—the latter representing not so much a fundamental philosophical position as a consistent body of thought in educational philosophy characteristic of a separate educational enterprise, and therefore more conveniently considered separately. Brubacher, *Modern Philosophies of Education* (1939, rev. 1950), is an especially able and well organized summary for those who wish further acquaintance with the field: it has recently been revised.

Are there any important general trends which may be discerned as developing consistently through the mass of specialized educational activity which has been described? In my judgment, there are, and it is convenient to summarize them in six very brief statements.

[1] Indeed, this field has been added at Chicago since this memorandum was written.

The Education profession has, with remarkable consistency and considerable success, striven to increase (1) the recognition of the individual needs of students; (2) the adaptation of the curriculum to those needs; (3) the participation of students in the determination of the policies which shape their educational experience; (4) the opportunity of each student to feel himself an accepted, contributing member of the group to which he has become assigned; (5) the student's insight into the social order in which he lives; (6) the student's capacity to make his own independent judgments of moral value, and his conviction that he has the right to make those judgments for himself. The profession has sought these things at times clumsily, and at times with a canny disillusionment as to the nature of the context in which they must be developed. They were its prized goals and they still are. There have been educational movements which run counter to some or all of them, and there still are. *But there is nothing like a trend within the profession to repudiate or abandon any of them.* Those who would decide to their own satisfaction, therefore, whether professional Education has been of value in helping to make American life somewhat more nearly what one might wish it to be, and whether the policies which it fosters are at present values to be conserved or threats from within, would do well to consider these six goals against the background of fundamental American democratic polity. If they are consistent with it; if, indeed, they are one of its components and one of its expressions, then the social science of Education must, like the rest of our heritage, be accepted as simultaneously part of what must be defended, and part of our defense.

PROPAGANDA, SPECIAL INTERESTS, AND THE PROFESSOR

By KING ADAMSON

Wayne University

I have recently been exposed to a full week of big business propaganda. The occasion was a "faculty conference" of multiple sessions sponsored by a large mid-western electric utility and intended to bring to "those who mold public opinion" the views of the corporate management. The immediate motivation of the conference arose out of the management's concern with the "growing and unnecessary encroachment" of federal power agencies into the domain of the private utilities and the "increasing trend toward socialization of our economy." The conferees included seven professors and instructors from universities in the area of southeastern Michigan and the top executives of the utility. The professors represented various fields of the social sciences and business administration.

The management hoped to influence the views and economic philosophies of the professors by acquainting them with the many problems of the corporate utility, with the manner in which and the organization through which these problems are approached by the management, and with the views of the management as to why it is socially desirable to continue to entrust to private enterprise control over the production and distribution of specific goods and services.

The conference got off to a good start, in my mind, with the frank admission by the executives of the motivations behind the conference and the objectives they hoped it would achieve. In morning sessions the professors sat with the executives of various organizational branches of the company and quickly acquainted themselves with the organization of the branches as well as the over-all organization of management. In each of these morning sessions, the executives of a particular organizational branch dis-

cussed the functions, problems, and managerial techniques with which they are concerned. These sessions were informal and the professors were urged to ask questions or comment at any time. The company officials were somewhat surprised and pleased to find that the professors had many questions designed not only to obtain information but also, in a half-joking manner, to put the officials "on the spot." Afternoon programs did not schedule group sessions, so that the professors as individuals could visit those departments in which they had specific interest.

In addition, there were luncheon and dinner meetings for top management officials and the university group, intended for and actually developing into give and take "bull sessions." The motivations of the management seemed to be at all times evident, frankly admitted, and above board. This was in part due to the confidence of the management that it has nothing to hide from representatives of the community in view of its many years of satisfactory public relations and first-class service to the community as well as, in recent years, its development of an exemplary democratic policy toward employees, union and nonunion alike. These executives sincerely believe that the corporation under their management is performing its economic function with greater efficiency under regulated free enterprise than could be achieved under any other form of institutional arrangement.

During these informal luncheon and dinner meetings the corporate executives were obviously anxious to get the faculty reaction to their views, to be reassured that the professors shared many of these views, to find that the conference could probably influence faculty men in the molding of their personal opinions, and, above all, to learn how the thinking and viewpoints of these visitors compared with their own. The professors were, of course, pleased by the desire of the executives to learn their views. More important from our point of view, however, was the evidence that these circumstances presented a rare opportunity for representatives of the university community to communicate faculty views to an influential nonacademic group. In such a setting it was apparent that propaganda could work both ways.

The professors did not hesitate to express their views that the university must be responsible to the whole community, that the

horizons of the faculty must therefore be broad, that free thought and reflection are essential for the adaptation of democratic institutions to social change, and that free thought implies freedom from compulsions or restraints imposed by any special-interest group. These views were not opposed by any of the corporate officials and were openly supported by some. After developing this background, the professors suggested that from the point of view of the whole community the relative merits of private versus public power must be settled on the basis of such objective criteria as efficiency of service, cost per kilowatt-hour, minimum interference with spheres of *individual* freedom, and over-all efficient utilization of the nation's resources. The faculty members expressed the view that they would assess favorably the activities of corporate executives in general in proportion to the extent to which such executives exercise their stewardship over corporate property in the public interest. The company representatives seemed to concur in these views also.

Some professors acknowledged the propriety of such a conference and evinced personal appreciation for the opportunity to attend. Later, however, among the professors alone, two or three dissenting individuals complained over "the wasting of our time" and business interests "tampering with higher education."

II

Familiar with concepts of social responsibility accepted by some liberal arts colleges and others, I personally went to the conference with a few misgivings over the propriety of my attendance. It is obvious that the nature and conduct of the conference were conducive to reflection over the proper attitude of the professor toward the organized appeals of special-interest groups. The tentative conclusions of one who has experienced such a "conference" may be interesting if there are continuing and increasing demands of special-interest groups for the opportunity to carry their views to university faculties. Several large corporations are experimenting with formalized conferences with the representatives of higher education, and labor groups have become increasingly aware of the importance of public opinion. In general, special

interests, which see opposing interests carrying their views to the university faculties, will feel impelled to present their own case. It seems realistic to presume that university administrators will, for various reasons, assent to proposals of (at least some) special interests for cooperative "conferences," "workshops," and "discussions," and that the administrators will urge their faculties to cooperate. What then should be the response of the college professor?

One's initial reaction to this question may be colored by his faith in the value of discussion in general. Some individuals seem inclined toward the belief that discussion and mutual acquaintance can provide the satisfactory and complete solution of every problem that arises from conflict of interests between man and man.[1] They have unswerving faith in the efficacy of round-table discussions, negotiation, and mediation. These individuals must be insufficiently aware that some conflicts of interest are real and cannot be talked away.

At the other extreme are those individuals who seem to feel that all conflicts involve such real differences that "discussion is fruitless because it cannot resolve anything." This view ignores the "common ground" that is uncovered in many discussions. It also fails to recognize the social importance of orderly solution of conflicts. (Indeed, from this point of view social organization and institutions are themselves devices for achieving orderly solution of conflicts in human relations.) Conflicts are resolved not only

[1] Such a view is illustrated, for example, by the remarks of a "businessman" before the trustees of the Committee for Economic Development in a discussion concerning "a better understanding of our economic system." It was his contention that since businessmen have the same basic virtues and objectives as other good American citizens, they need only to make their personalities known to the public to develop in the public the faith that these men are managing the economic system in the best interests of the people. It does not seem to have occurred to the speaker that, however lofty the motives of corporate executives and however great their integrity, some groups may wish to share in the leadership of the economy and other groups may demand a greater voice in a different distribution of the material rewards and intangible opportunities available in the economic and social system. In the same vein, it does not seem to have occurred to some labor leaders that however sincere their zeal to improve the lot of the "worker," sections of the public will nevertheless perceive that the gains of labor are sometimes made at the expense of the unorganized consumer. (Cf. the pamphlet, "How Can a Better Understanding of Our Economic System Be Fostered?" printed by the Committee for Economic Development, 444 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York.)

through legal institutions but also through negotiation and compromise. Discussion, in addition to uncovering common ground, can also sharply delineate the "contested ground" and point up the areas where compromise is necessary if any or all disputants are to achieve the objective of an orderly solution.

Most of us in the university community reject the doctrine of the ivory tower. While admitting that knowledge is worth while for its own sake, we find added meaning for research in the applicability of its results for the solution of social and physical problems. This view does not necessarily imply, however, that professors must subject themselves to the propaganda bombardments of interest groups—unless there are social values implying that the professors ought to listen. The willingness to listen, for example, could be construed as being indicative of a democratic attitude, broad-mindedness, sympathetic attention, and so on. The only serious reservation could be that the bombardments seriously interfered with the intellectual climate necessary for free research and instruction. Evidence, such as the contributions to this publication, seems to indicate that we of the university faculty have confidence in our mental powers of objectivity, impartiality, and mature judgment. Would it not be inconsistent, moreover, for those who have insisted that professors can listen to communist speakers without being tainted, to fear the "evil" propaganda of Wall Street, or a labor federation, or a consumer organization?

Impartiality, of course, implies the willingness of each professor to give attention to opposing views. Not much impartiality can be inferred when conferences with big business executives are heartily endorsed by professors of business administration, when labor union workshops are supported mainly by instructors in labor economics, and when agricultural conferences attract chiefly the agricultural specialists from the State College of Agriculture. In this connection one might raise the question: how many faces should the university present to the public? It is my conviction that the answer should to the fullest extent possible be *one.*

Not only should the countenance be unequivocal but it should accurately disclose also the nonpartisan character of the university personality. From this point of view it would be desirable for representatives of the university, faculty and administrative alike,

to indicate clearly the terms under which they must enter into discussions with any private groups if the university is not to forsake its functions in the democratic community. The representatives of the university must demand from all others the right of non-partisanship. They must emphasize that from among the objectives of a democratic society the university considers three freedoms indispensable for the fulfillment of its own functions and responsibilities: freedom of thought, freedom of communication of new ideas, and freedom to obtain accurate information. While insisting upon these conditions of intercourse, the university need not be unfriendly toward, or coldly distant from, elements of the community. Primary concern with the welfare of the whole community does not preclude sympathetic attention to the problems and needs of its parts.

A declaration of the terms under which representatives of the university are willing to participate is, however, not enough. Cordiality of discussion is not so important that the broad social objectives[1] of the university need ever be subordinated in any way to the objectives of a special interest. In order to insure that university objectives are never so subordinated, I believe that it is necessary for university representatives to avoid carrying with them into such conferences ulterior—or should I say secondary—objectives which depend for their fulfillment upon the active support of the special interests represented. In my evaluation, such short-run objectives as legislative approval of the university's budget or securing a bequest for the construction of a new engineering building or the completion of a research project in chemistry must always be subordinated to a clear understanding by all elements of the community of what the university conceives its fundamental objectives to be.

[1] At several points in the text I refer to the "broad" objectives of the university in the democratic community. It is characteristic of the progressive democratic society that it refuses to restrict the direction or manner of its future development with absolute definitions of its objectives or means. If I were to attempt a definition in very general terms of my conception of the *primary* function of the university, however, it would run something like this: Through experiment, reflection, and teaching to provide the democratic society with the mental and spiritual resources and capable manpower necessary for that society successfully to adapt itself to social change without restriction on the progressive development of the democratic process.

III

In an argument over the relative merits of studying for the Ph.D. degree a proponent of graduate study commented that "an individual would have to be pretty stupid or unusually erudite to attend a graduate school for three years without learning *something*." I have a somewhat analogous thought here with reference to the attitude of the professor toward discussions with interest groups. He would be a learned individual, indeed, who could not find, in contacts with the leaders of interest groups or social movements, anything that would add to his comprehension or to his teaching effectiveness. I personally feel that as a result of my attending the utility conference described above I have gained greater comprehension of the character of the problems of a large corporation, the relative importance of organization and personal qualifications in resolving such problems, and the basic objectives and motivations of corporate management. I also feel that as a minimum such conferences can lead to greater accuracy in classroom discussion of economic problems.

The benefits to the individual faculty representative from successive contacts with similar groups would, of course, be subject to diminishing returns; but contacts with dissimilar groups could continue to be profitable. A second contact within a short period of time with the management of a corporation, for example, might be considerably less worth while than the first. On the other hand, a different kind of contact on the second occasion, perhaps with the administrators of a government agency or the leaders of a labor union, might prove to be instructive.

Research and teaching, to be sure, are our primary functions, but public contacts also offer an avenue available both for improving one's professional qualifications and for contribution to the community's understanding of the university. Although the professor must enjoy considerable leeway in his decisions to allocate his time among the available channels of service, the university can reasonably expect him to appraise judiciously all his opportunities for fulfilling his responsibility to his institution.

I have suggested that it is proper for members of the faculty to converse with special interests once those interests clearly under-

stand the professors' insistence on the right of impartiality. It is important that the university representatives to such meetings include strong personalities and some of the university's more influential faculty members. Should the pressure of many responsibilities cause the faculty to delegate to less qualified colleagues representation at public conferences, it would be unfortunate, indeed, if the result should be that the broad functions and objectives of the university were voiced with timidity.

It must be admitted, of course, that some faculty members hold rather narrow views concerning the function of the university in the democratic community. We have all known the professor of business administration who by the implication of his actions and utterances seems to believe that the primary objectives of the university are the technical training of clerks and junior executives for corporate business organizations and the indoctrination of students with the sanctity of existing business views as to the proper functioning of our system of free enterprise.[1] Many of us have also met the professor of labor economics who seems to feel that his function is primarily the training of leaders for organized labor and the revelation of the "evils" inherent in the existing balance of economic power and distribution of real income. And perhaps others could be mentioned. Since faculty members with undue sympathies for particular special interests will be in the front seats at conferences involving such special interests, it is important that the university should also be represented by faculty members with broad views of the meaning of higher education lest

[1] In recent months similar views have been carried to the extreme of suggesting a permanent "liaison between educational institutions and business leaders" for the purpose of:

1. Determining the objectives of business education
2. Development of course content of business courses
3. Selection of stndeuts for business curricula
4. Selection of instructors
5. Correlating work and training

Needless to say, this vision is a considerable extension of the admitted right of the university to solicit advice from nonacademic professional consultants. It would seem that at some business schools at least the training of clerks and junior executives for business (and the securing of job opportunities for the prospective employees) has become so important that the broad objectives of the university have either been lost in the back row or shoved off the platform entirely. Cf. "Business and Education Teamwork—Trend of Post War Period," Dr. Robert A. Love, *Collegiate News and Views* (Southwestern Publishing Company), March, 1950, pp. 6 and 7.

the community get a distorted view of the character of the university and its objectives.

If it is important for the community to comprehend the character and status of the university, it is doubly important that the whole of the faculty and university administration fully appreciate them. Public conferences as well as campus contacts afford an opportunity to re-emphasize the university's primary obligations to the whole community. Since it is difficult to define general welfare, it is sometimes difficult to think in terms of abstract allegiance to the total democratic community; but we can at least remind ourselves to avoid the incongruity involved in the temptation to identify the primary objectives of the university with those of any one special interest.

THE NATURAL ANTIDOTE TO COMMUNISM IN ASIA

By KURT F. LEIDECKER
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The spread of communism in Asia is recognized by all "Westerners" as a serious threat to the economic and spiritual foundation upon which Western, particularly American, civilization is based. The transgressor of the 38th parallel was, therefore, immediately identified not merely as an intruder and aggressor in the military sense, but as the bearer of an ideology, especially the communist ideology.

When speaking of communism we usually confuse three varieties: The application to economic, social, and political life of the Marxian doctrine; Kremlinism, or the dictates emanating from the great laboratory of the Marxist ideology; and plain hoodlumism. The man in the street, whether East or West, is not a communist in the strict sense. He simply is one individual in that vast reservoir of humanity numbering into the hundereds of millions to whom any change seems attractive, once his eyes have been opened to his squalor and a gun has been pressed into his hand. What can he lose? At the most he can lose his miserable life and exchange it for oblivion or, if he is religious, for a happier existence. He is not technically a communist, not even in the Kremlinite sense. He is just an underprivileged individual who has his counterparts all over the world. This category includes all those who by devious means or by force, not by virtue of work and merit, would better their position. It does not take lectures in historical materialism, nor much Muscovite persuasion, to recruit people in this category. They are not bearers of an ideology, they are simply disgusted and disgruntled and "mad" at all the *haves*.

To be a real communist, a person would have to subscribe to the Marxist creed and/or be Kremlin-trained. Taking the educational

average in the Orient into consideration, such communists are few, indeed. However, these few are dangerous because they are able to provide the motive power to the sluggish man in the street and impart direction to his inchoate desires and aspirations.

II

The ideology of communism frankly acknowledges an economic basis. It is a dictum widely accepted today that the areas of poverty and economic distress are the breeding places of communism. However, this is only conditionally the case, and too much has been made of it. Misery, squalor, hunger, to be sure, cause in many cases discontent and serious trouble. But the Marxian doctrine is not based on such phenomena primarily. It is based on the conditions of work, the relationship of proletariat and bourgeoisie. Before the Marxian dialectics can operate effectively, you have to have a labor situation and a social structure satisfying the demands of Karl Marx in his *Das Kapital.* Such presuppositions, however, are found practically only in the West, rarely in the Orient, except in the largest cities. Hence, these economic sore spots in the Orient are not necessarily ripe for Kremlinism, nor do they necessarily generate communism in either the technical or the broader sense. To alleviate the social and economic conditions as a prerequisite to forestalling communism in the areas still outside the communistic block in Asia, is thus purely humanitarian rather than statesmanlike. That it is immensely costly to bring up those regions to any semblance of prosperity will be generally admitted. Moreover, it means definitely interfering in the political and social structure as well, acts which might have unfavorable repercussions upon the friendly relationships we maintain with the foreign government involved. This is particularly evident from the recent discussions occasioned by the Presidential recommendation to promote and go through with the program of technical aid to underdeveloped areas in South America. What seems a very much worth-while and humanitarian program may become a very troublesome issue.

If we wish to alleviate social and economic ills as prerequisites to forestalling communism, we are acknowledging that, by neces-

sity, the economic conditions are at the very foundation of man's aspirations and his ideologies. As a matter of fact, we are employing the thinking of Marx, who deduced all phases of human life and thought by an inversion of the Hegelian scheme. Our solution would thus be a belated kind of dialectical materialism. It would be highly ineffective if applied overtly because it would be pointed out that it originates in quarters, *i. e.*, in the United States, where the type of struggle which Marx postulated for society is not in evidence. Furthermore, the vivid portrayal of the suppressed and underprivileged classes by Marx must appear more life-like to the underprivileged than would a description of a society affluent with wealth.

Another attack on communism has been launched under the name of the Christian alternative. There is much that is good in pointing out the essential difference between Christianity and communism in all its forms, but the cogency is still lacking why one is to be preferred over the other. The educated Marxist knows features of Christianity which its followers do not admit. The Marxist also will not deny the ideals of Christianity which are much vaunted: love of neighbor, giving a laborer his just due, true brotherhood and not castehood of men, and many similar features. Dialectical materialism has history to back some of its claims and, in addition, enlists western science in its service, which derives events and institutions from economic facts and environmental influences, treating ideals as effects and consequences. As a result, Christianity can never find support in either historical materialism or in western science. Nevertheless, as one Oriental reviewer of a book by Dr. Samuel Vairanapillai, *A Christian Alternative to Communism*, put it, Christianity is, to be sure, a challenge to communism, but "it is very doubtful if, with the present mental outlook of nations who profess Christianity without practicing it, things can improve." In this criticism lies the utter futility and somewhat of the disdain with which the Oriental considers western civilization while, at the same time, it indicates a sort of hopelessness in the face of events which are bringing communism closer and closer. The West has not given the East any weapon to speak of except guns, which, of course, are wholly ineffectual if aimed at ideologies.

III

There is but one sure way of combatting communism in Asia, and that is to muster the indigenous resources of the Orient, thus helping the Orient to help itself. The springboards for such action are narrowing daily, and it is high time that we recognize our sole remaining opportunities. Weapons and military aid as well as money the Orient might and will accept as a last resort; but, since Korea, Orientals have learned that with weapons, ammunition, and the acceptance of aid from the West they also inherit the ravages of war and economic or charitable dependence on the West. Christianity they will accept only very reluctantly, for the Oriental believes in a workable combination of precept and practice while the West has set a very poor example. There is thus left the native philosophy of life in which the Oriental could and should be fortified. This is, indeed, the natural antidote to communism.

This, of course, is not wholly up to the Orientals themselves. They have, in fact, been prevented from developing this natural antidote by Christianity itself, and its missionary effort. In two ways, thus, has Western civilization contributed to the ineffectualness of a native way of life and outlook on life in combatting communism. On the one hand, it has chided, derided, vilified, and opposed at every turn the native religious feeling, striving to substitute for it a Judeo-Christian philosophy with a western theology largely incomprehensible to the Oriental. The missionary contributed to the general confusion of thought by depriving the Oriental of his capacity to think for himself and engage in a dialectic with communism. The Oriental is made to accept Christianity like a medicine or cure-all for social ills. But that it may be or is a cure-all for social ills has not even been demonstrated to satisfaction in the West, where Christianity and science still are at odds, the pronouncements of some scientists to the contrary notwithstanding. By substituting faith for knowledge or deeming it higher than healthy skepticism, the power to reason and thus forge a rational weapon against communism is being denied by Christianity not only to the people of the West but also to those of the East.

On the other hand, the spread of Christian doctrine in the Orient, if it succeeded on a larger scale than it has up to now, might by a strange twist of dialectics contribute to a more luxuriant growth of communism. For the discussions of Marxism developed largely when western social ills were interpreted as a result of Christian attitudes or Christian indifference. In Marxism, Christianity appears reactionary to all progress in the economic sphere in that it gives first place to the ideal and transmundane, and second place to the material and structural foundations. This, then, becomes exceedingly effective propaganda in the Orient, for the Oriental is aware of the real conflicts and even wars in western civilization which have been the direct results of Christian attitudes. Moreover, he can go along with Christianity and its theology only up to the point where Christianity demands all or nothing. He thus becomes very easily persuaded of the contention of the historical materialist that Christianity tries to confuse plain issues by another worldly and vapory idealism lulling the convert into unawareness of what is going on in the economic and political sphere.

Christianity thus seems to be faced with a real dilemma. It does identify itself with progress as understood in the West and hence must be missionary in spirit. But in the interest of helping the Orient to help itself against an avalanche of communistic propaganda, Christianity would have to become less insistent that it alone be the antidote to communism. This is a stark issue, but one that must ultimately be faced. Perhaps it falls under the general heading of "re-thinking" missions. What is needed is essentially a re-examination of fundamental assumptions in Christian theology which make it the exclusive and uncompromising religion which it is. The full answer to this problem is, of course, a very complicated one and cannot be discussed here.

A more direct solution to our problem of how to wrest the Orient from the clutches of the logic of communism would thus involve less emphasis on the acceptance of Christian doctrine and a more appreciative attitude toward native religions and philosophies of life. Historical materialism has notoriously no use for any religion whatsoever. Yet the Orient is the real homeland of every religion of any importance, including Christianity. The source of

creative power and imagination has not yet dried up. The withering dialectic of Marxism must seem as strange to the Orient as that of modern Christian theology, and perhaps more so. For the Oriental is asked to give up a heritage that is ingrained in him for thousands of years, that is, his belief in spiritual values as the only worth-while values in life. Even if his religion is one of nature worship and seems utterly concrete, as Shintoism, it still contains sufficient elements of a supranatural tendency which is miles apart from the concrete thinking of historical materialism. Only an Oriental who is completely devoid of any knowledge or appreciation of his spiritual heritage will find the least attraction in historical materialism.

There is more spirituality in the Orient than may be apparent even in the most polished westernized representative. We in the West have developed a great talent for making the Oriental ill at ease if he should assert his spiritual heritage. If the Marxist calls him reactionary, we call him unprogressive, and he is caught on the horns of a dilemma which he avoids politely by withdrawing within. There, in his inmost being you might say, he has resolved the conflict. For his outlook on life is such that the material is not in conflict with the spiritual but they are two phases of one reality. His dialectic requires no either-or attitude as do both Christianity and communism.

IV

That much only for a general characterization of the issues. The real antidote to communism lies in the specific beliefs and attitudes of Orientals. Only some of these we shall touch upon. The Buddhist as well as the kindred Jain believes in desire as the root of all evils. Vanquish desire, and salvation is not far away. How utterly different from the communist, who fires his comrades to actual conflict and revolution to bring about the Utopia of a classless society. A casteless society was envisaged and practiced by Buddhism and some followers of Brahmanism long before Marxist ideology gained ground. Communism not only tolerates but prescribes violence, which is diametrically opposed to all principles of Buddhism, Jainism, Vedanta, Brahma Somaj, and the

whole body of Hindu religions, each one of which almost without exception preaches *ahimsa* or nonviolence to any living creature. Christianity's marching song "Onward Christian Soldiers" and the compromising attitude of every denomination in the matter of war do not, therefore, stand out boldly in relief, as do these Oriental religions.

Christianity shares with communism its exclusiveness. Salvation is to be had only in Christ, in which contention theology is supported by the tremendous endeavor to convert and proselytize. The Utopia of communism is likewise exclusively realized when all capitalistic enterprises have ceased and classless society is established. There are no alternatives for traditional Christianity as there are none for communism in the matter of salvation or happiness. However, the Hindu, his demonstration of violence at the granting of complete independence notwithstanding, is tolerant in his basic attitude toward other faiths or ways of salvation. There is not one high road to attainment, there are many. Such an attitude precludes from the very outset the acceptance, on the part of the Hindus, of communism as the only saving device.

The very rock on which all religions are based is spirituality. The things of the mind and heart, the dictates of reason and creative imagination are the determining factors in man's life as they are in civilization. What could be more antithetical to the Marxian dialectic? We in the West can never muster such a united front against communism. We are too sadly split into factions by virtue of our growing mistaken persuasion that science is the solution to all of our problems. Science does not recognize the primacy of ideals or even ideas. These are derivatives; they originate in the process of natural development. They are outgrowths of economic conditions (science and historical materialism agree in this); they have no autonomy. Christianity, however, wishes to persuade us that there is freedom in the spiritual world and there is spontaneity. The very fact that all major religions teach the good way of life is indication enough that inherently they believe in the possibility of realizing the ideal through effort rather than seeking for the possibility of realizing the ideal in environment and the factors involved in conditioning. Man is made an agent, a free agent, endowed with choice, not a mere automaton whose

thought and behavior are physically determined. And in this connection the question may be raised as to whether the emphasis which modern Christianity puts upon social agencies, medical aid, guidance, marriage clinics, clubs and dance halls will not, in the Oriental mind, create the impression that Christianity's first concern is not with spiritual things but with these as effects of material conditions—a doctrine shared by both science and historical materialism. In the wake of such practices and doctrines of Christianity do we wonder that there is such a person as a "rice-Christian" and that he is despised in the Orient? Is not the "rice-Christian" the same individual that could most easily be persuaded of communism also? For it promises the full dinner pail upon more rational premises, as a natural consequence of social conditioning, without making it contingent upon acceptance of a belief in the supernatural.

Moral and spiritual life is full of paradoxes. In denouncing spiritual hegemony in the Orient perhaps more could be gained in the way of building up a bulwark against communism than otherwise. Religion as such is a more vital affair in the Orient than it is with us because it is the result of an outlook on life impressed upon the Oriental for ages. By strengthening him through appreciation of his philosophy of life we might generate such spiritual forces as will successfully withstand the onslaught of communism. At the same time it would bolster our own prestige with the Oriental, who is developing a stronger contempt of the West the more he feels himself drawn into the dialectic staged by opposing social and political factions and the less he can resist the penetration of western conceptions of progress which sucks him into the maelstrom of western economic and political entanglements.

V

Slowly and irrevocably the East is aligning itself against the West politically and economically. What Japan began hastily and by force, copying the West, the East is now doing quietly. Note the speed with which China became unified under communism—China, which has been in the throes of war for many years, the same years during which the West had free access to it and proselytized

on a tremendous scale. Spiritually, the East has drawn farther apart from the West than ever before. Each war the West sponsors or pursues seems to deepen the abyss. Nationalism is growing in the East as never before; economic self-sufficiency supported by Russia is gaining, if slowly; dissatisfaction with the apron strings by which the West holds or is trying to hold the East, is mounting. A sort of Asian solidarity is already foreshadowed by India's foreign policy and her apprehension at being made one of the fortresses of the West against communism.

At the same time India's spiritual hegemony over Asia, which dates back many centuries, may once more be in the ascendency, and if it is, we have nothing to fear from communism in that quarter of the world. But if we fight India spiritually, we shall weaken her and ultimately lose an ally, and the loss will be irreparable. It must be remembered that, apart from Iran, India is the only major country in the East which is independent and holds the key position. At the same time her heritage is so utterly different from western materialism that we cannot afford to neglect this reservoir of antimaterialistic thinking and attitude. But if we insist on "conversion" to western standards and western economic and theological outlook, we risk raising the dialectics of Marx, the very incubus of which we would have Asia free. However, through a renewed and large-scale effort to appreciate, if not strengthen, the age-old Oriental outlook on life we would gain much for Asia and ourselves. Victory may not be had by rejecting compromise and being unbending; victory often comes more painlessly and rapidly with yielding prerogatives. Do we dare bring sacrifices, do we dare retrench in order to gain? It all depends on our sincerity and whether we accept fundamentally, and not by lip-service alone, the basic principles of tolerance in our own Constitution.

WHAT PRICE PUBLICATION?—UNIVERSITY PRESSES

By SILAS VANCE
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In his article, "What Price Criticism?—Continued,"[1] Robert Bierstedt, unimpressed by the contention of publishers that they "make a contribution to learning and to scholarship by bringing out books which will never be commercially successful," adds his vigorous support to the cogent arguments of Stephen B. Jones[2] that professors should cease rendering their services as critics and advisers at inadequate fees. Then he makes this exception: "We might want to have a differential scale for university presses as contrasted with commercial publishing companies."

I would certainly enter no objection to either his just views concerning commercial publishers or his generous feelings toward university presses. But from my knowledge of scholars who have published and who have been unable to publish through the latter, and after some personal experiences of my own, I should like to raise a few questions relative to our university presses.

Mr. Bierstedt's expressed "skepticism concerning the claim ... that publishers are anxious to bring out important books even though they are marginal from the point of view of the market" points up a central issue. Commercial presses exist primarily to make a profit. University presses, so most of us have always thought, exist primarily to publish valuable books. But in practice, how clearly has this distinction been maintained? As regards anxiety to publish good but unprofitable books, just how far different from commercial publishers are university publishers? The best commercial publishers, fortunately, are not indifferent to important books and the prestige they give to a press, and most

[1] Summer, 1951 *Bulletin*, Vol. 37, No. 2, pp. 276–280.
[2] "What Price Criticism?" Winter, 1950 *Bulletin*, Vol 36, No. 4, pp. 744–747.

university publishers, unfortunately, are not indifferent to marketable books. Whatever the difference in their respective interests in quality books, both are notably influenced in their publishing policies by probable commercial results. If an author has a decent manuscript that is a good commercial risk, he can publish through a university press as through a commercial press. If he has a scholarly manuscript that is a poor commercial risk, he will find very much the same difficulty publishing through a university press as through a commercial press—except for one difference: the university press will accept his money and publish, secured by an author's subsidy, while the better commercial presses will not.

A fairly common experience among scholars is to have a university press accept a manuscript for publication conditioned upon an author's subsidy. This, of course, frequently blocks publication. I recall a young scholar who some years ago offered a manuscript in succesion to two well known university presses in the South. Both were ready to publish, but both required a subsidy running well up into four figures, which he was unable to supply. Two years later, when more secure financially, he had the work published by a small commercial firm that demanded a somewhat smaller subsidy. I might add that this same scholar has since published three very solid books, one through a commercial publisher and two through a university press, all being subsidized by a well-known foundation. Without financial backing, I doubt that he could ever have found a publisher for any one of these.

A little over a year ago I sent a manuscript to one of the best university presses in the East. In due time the editor wrote me: "The book cannot fail to be useful to scholars but of course cannot expect much general audience." I was therefore asked to provide "funds for publication." Upon further inquiry I learned that the required subsidy would approximate $3700, "based on a reckoning that the book might come to about 430 pages." Though the editor assured me that "It would be a pleasure to see the book on our list, and I hope that the prospect of your securing a subsidy may turn out to be better than you fear," I, on my part, was unable to proceed further.

Similarly, the editor of a southern university press wrote me:

"Under present conditions, we could not undertake the publication of a study like yours without a subsidy in the neighborhood of $3,000.00." And the director of a large northern university press (to whom I made inquiry without sending my manuscript), after explaining that his press limited its publications for the most part to works by local scholars, gave me a rough estimate of $1000 per 100 pages.

One very reputable university press kept a manuscript of mine for over a year and a half. It was a rather teasing affair. The first portion (83 pages) was sent to the press, and after ten months and two or three inquiries, I had a reply. The readers had found in it "much of promise," and the director asked that I "send on the remainder of the manuscript," adding, "I will try to accomplish readings much faster than I did on this." Within two months he had the remainder (totaling altogether over 300 pages). Eleven months later, and after several more reminders, he gave me the long-delayed verdict. There was no explicit propositon: he merely commended my work, pointed out its probable limitations on the market, informed me that he would like to publish it if he could get the money, and held my manuscript. I wrote asking for its return, having by then concluded that if I were going to pay for publication I would at least seek a publisher who might function with greater dispatch.

II

University presses, of course, like commercial presses, vary a great deal in their standards and aims and policies. Some demand a much higher quality of product than others, and when their high standards are met, these are less likely to express dependence on an author's subsidy. From these presses have come some really distinguished works, most of them works which could never have been published on a commercial basis. Many presses go in almost wholly for marketable books, and of course they issue some books of value, but also some of doubtful value. A large number of presses restrict their publications primarily to members of their own institutions or communities, a policy which, while encouraging local endeavor and making for community good will and

institutional prestige, results in over-all sacrifice in quality of publications. Still other presses tend to restrict their publications to regional material. But whatever their special aims, nearly all university presses, though never indifferent to quality, follow a similar and almost invariable practical policy: either they require that a prospective book be a good risk from the standpoint of the market, or they require the author's financial backing.

Money, of course, whether it come in the form of a subsidy or an income from profits, is a *sine qua non* of publishing, and neither university presses nor commercial presses can be indifferent toward their practical means of getting it. And since university presses are undertaking a special and difficult kind of publishing, it no doubt has seemed prudent and justifiable for their directors to raise the question of subsidy with authors. In view of their limited funds, and all ultimate results considered, this may be a good and defensible policy for university presses to follow. One indubitable benefit that accrues from it is that it enables those presses to issue a larger number of books than they otherwise could. But certain unfortunate consequences must be recognized.

One of the most obvious of these is that the policy defeats the desired aim of publishing the best available material. Less valuable manuscripts, subsidized by the authors, are published by university presses, while more valuable manuscripts by authors who cannot afford to back them financially remain unpublished.

Another consequence is the discouragement of scholarly endeavor. The incentive to spend several years on a research project is dampened by the scholar's knowledge that when his work is accomplished and he attempts to do anything with it, he will likely be confronted with a monetary demand which more urgent and more intimate obligations forbid him to meet. To the scholar the price for publishing a book is too likely to appear to be not merely honest, original research, but that *plus* three to four thousand dollars. This condition may explain in part why so many of our able and learned professors, instead of producing valuable works in scholarship, are devoting themselves to multiplying grammar texts, literary anthologies, and the like—works of commercial value, albeit of so little distinction that from a half dozen available ones covering the same material, college departments could, with-

out any real loss or gain, choose by the flip of a coin a text which their students must buy.

One may raise the question as to how far the consequences of this policy are reflected in the managers or directors of university presses. I have no extensive knowledge of the relationship existing between these directors and their superiors, but from my point of view it has often seemed that the "successful" directors must be, in many instances, those who most shrewdly handle and extend their operating funds. Many directors certainly seem as much concerned about finances and commercial values as they do about the advancement of knowledge and scholarship. Apropos of which I merely raise the question: shouldn't the director of a university press be, essentially, a man able to channel toward publication, and interested in getting published, the best books?

And finally, what are the consequences on the reputation and prestige of the university presses themselves? The *raison d'être* of university presses is to publish valuable books. Many published books have both value and market appeal. Some have neither value nor market appeal. Others have market appeal but little value. And still others have value but little market appeal. The first of these is the province of the more reputable commercial publishers; the second and third, of less reputable firms. The last is the special province of university presses. And to the extent that they allow an author's money to influence their publishing programs, they confuse their aims with those of less-than-first-quality commercial presses. There are available everywhere small commercial presses willing to print anything by anybody who will pay the cost, and for university presses, even though they hold to a certain standard of quality, to follow a policy resembling vanity publishing must seem to the public mind a prostitution of their essential character. Unfortunately, not all the books issued by university presses are of unquestioned value, and inferentially related to this fact, the widespread practice of making cash which may be advanced to support a manuscript the final determinant in its publication can only compromise the high prestige which our great university presses have achieved by many magnificent publishing accomplishments.

I therefore raise the question whether it might not be better for

university presses and for authors alike if the matter of quality were the first and the last thing considered in the publication of manuscripts. Whatever sacrifices it might entail, such a policy would certainly make for a higher level of excellence in the books published and a higher respect for the dignity and integrity of the presses; and to authors such a policy would present a clear challenge to be met. The standard might well be one hard for many to attain, but it would at least make entire sense, and scholars interested in doing research would strive willingly and hopefully to reach it. In contrast, the present policy with its monetary demand only frustrates the scholar and discourages further effort. There is no question of bringing his work up to a higher standard of value. He either pays or quits.

THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY PROFESSORS AND LECTURERS

By RICHARD H. SHRYOCK
The Johns Hopkins University

The Sixth University Conference of the International Association of University Professors and Lecturers was held at Nice, France (with one session in Monaco), September 20–24, 1951. Since this was the first Conference held subsequently to the affiliation of the American Association of University Professors with the International Association, it seemed appropriate that the President of the former should attend as an American delegate. The hope that other American representatives could be present was not fulfilled. The Conference proved interesting, and the Association seems a promising one. There are certain possible difficulties or weaknesses in its organization, but these—as will be noted below—seem to be those incidental to early growth and to the complications inherent in any international program. What has been accomplished to date with very limited funds, and with a staff consisting only of a Secretary General (Professor R. Douglas Laurie of the University of Wales) and a Secretary (Mrs. C. M. Cecil of London), augurs well for the future.

Historical Background

Just a word may be said about the historical background of the International Association and of its member organizations. The first national association appears to have been the American Association of University Professors (1915), which was followed by the Association of University Teachers of the United Kingdom (1919). Between the World Wars, kindred bodies were set up in several other European countries. In 1944, university men from the Allied Countries resident in Britain adopted provisional statutes for an international organization; and the latter was permanently estab-

lished at Brussels in 1947. From the beginning the I.A.U.P.L. was devoted to the encouragement of international collaboration in the intellectual field, and more specifically to the maintenance of academic freedom and of other interests common to university professors in all parts of the world.

The I.A.U.P.L. was established as a federated body, representing national associations, of which there were only four in 1947. The number of these national sections has since then grown rapidly, and they now number about twenty-two—although a few of these sections seem to be largely local in nature. Some of the stronger sections had been established independently of the I.A.U.P.L., for example, those in Great Britain, France, Switzerland, and the United States. But the Association has encouraged the formation of national associations in other lands, as in certain of the Oriental countries. In so doing it first approaches the rectors of universities, but deals only with national associations, once these have been formed. The chief difficulty during the first years was that funds were inadequate for the activities desired; yet, until such activities were under way, it was hard to secure the affiliation of national groups. This difficulty was partly overcome by generous contributions from individual donors in Britain.

Organization

As noted, the I.A.U.P.L. is a federated body, governed by a Council which includes at least one delegate from each "section"; in any case, a section has but one vote. The Council elects an Executive Committee which attends to interim affairs. The Council also plans the "Conferences," which are held at intervals of from one to two years, and to which all members of national sections and even representatives of individual universities are invited. Conferences have no authority, but they serve two functions: (1) of providing discussions which may later guide the Concil, and (2) of introducing individuals from nonmember countries to the Association, thus serving as a sort of recruiting ground. Continuity in and general direction of the Association's affairs are provided by the Secretary General and by the Secretary's office in London.

Finances

The original difficulty concerning finances has been mentioned. Without reviewing the detailed record, one may note the Secretary General's estimates that total income from June, 1951 to June, 1952 will be £930, and total expenditures £1180—leaving a deficit of £250. Income is derived chiefly from the annual dues paid by member sections; these vary according to the size of the bodies, and in some cases according to the financial condition of the country concerned.

At present, the American Association pays five hundred dollars (approximately £180), Britain, £120, Germany, £75, Switzerland, France, Belgium, Italy, Burma, and Turkey, £50 each, Ceylon, Egypt, and Pakistan, £10 each. The Association would need five more sections, paying £50 each, in order to balance the present budget. It has also been suggested, as another possible means to this end, that "Associate" (individual) memberships be set up to provide individual contributions from "friends of the Association."

Activities

The early interests of the Association centered on two rather practical matters: (1) the preparation of a report "on the equivalencies of academic qualifications," and (2) the establishment of an International Universities Bureau to handle this and other matters of common concern to the university world. Reports upon both these matters, and also on such subjects as sabbatical leave, student health, and entrance requirements, were published between 1947 and 1950. These reports, and much other material about the Association's organization and activities, are included in the pamphlet series *Communications*, which now includes fifteen issues which have appeared since 1944.

The I.A.U.P.L. has cooperated effectively with UNESCO in some of the matters mentioned above, and exchanges observers with that body. Its plans for a permanent International Universities Bureau were adopted by the International Association of Universities (I.A.U.) when the latter body was formed under UNESCO auspices at Nice in 1950. The I.A.U., which is a feder-

ation of university administrations, now maintains the Bureau at UNESCO House in Paris. The I.A.U. will also publish a summary, originally prepared by the I.A.U.P.L., of degree systems in over thirty countries.

Cooperation between the International Association of Universities and the International Association of University Professors and Lecturers seems assured. The latter approved a plan for such cooperation at its 1951 meeting, which includes arrangements for exchange of observers, possible joint committees, avoidance of overlapping activities, and the like. It should be remembered that the rectors of many European and Oriental Universities (who are involved in the I.A.U.) are professors, rather than separate administrative officers as in the United States.

Present Interests

The interests of the I.A.U.P.L. are converging on issues of immediate concern to professors as such, notably upon questions concerning salaries and pensions, research, and academic freedom.

At the recent meeting in Nice information was presented by a special committee on the salary and pension situation in various countries. Resolutions which were adopted on the subject included a condemnation of sex discrimination and of attempts to relate salaries to hours of teaching. Regular increments in salary up to a maximum in all grades were advocated, as well as a "reasonable amount" of paid "outside" work. Salaries in general, it was held, should reflect the "importance, dignity, and social standing" of academic men; while pensions should be provided for all university teachers, and should bear a "reasonable relation" to salaries at retirement. But every retired professor should be assured of a minimum pension, even if this involved supplementation of funds from general (private or governmental) sources. The report on salaries and pensions was intended to provide data essential to a continuing study of the status of university professors.[1]

Involved in this whole subject, and of special interest to the Conference at Nice, was the issue of academic freedom. Two de-

[1] Professor Laurie has already prepared a memorandum on "The Status of the University Teacher in the United Kingdom."

tailed memoranda on this were read to the Conference, one by a Swiss and another by a German professor—the general tenor of which was similar to what one might expect to hear in this country. Indeed, Professor J.-R. de Salis of Zurich, in one of these statements, declared that ". . . the Declaration of American University Associations (sic) of 1940, on the rights and duties of professors. . . corresponds with the conceptions and traditions which we are defending in free countries in Europe."

After hearing this statement, the Conference recommended—and the Council adopted—resolutions on academic freedom which were based in considerable part on the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure, developed and endorsed by the American Association of University Professors and the Association of American Colleges.

Comments

The possible weaknesses of the I.A.U.P.L. have been financial, and also relate to membership. It is not clear how representative some of the national sections may be of the academic personnel in their respective countries. Perhaps inevitably, in the effort to expand, the Association may have taken in some bodies which were either (1) not representative of any large part of academic personnel, or (2) not representative of the more able academic men. Such matters are probably difficult to judge, even for the I.A.U.P.L. officers and staff. And in a few cases, as noted, the sections seem largely local in nature.

In consequence, the delegates from only one university—if they happen to constitute a national section—may have the same vote as do the representatives of large national associations. Some modification of this arrangement seems desirable.

From the American viewpoint it would also be helpful if meetings of the Executive Committee, Council and Conference could—at least at times—be arranged for the summer months.

With regard to meetings, the status of the Conference was not always clear to those present. The Conference includes almost any professor or administrative officer who wishes to come, and those attending naturally wished to record their views by passing resolutions or taking other actions. Professor Laurie explained

at Nice that the Conference has no power, but there still seemed to be some confusion in the matter.

On the other hand, present difficulties concerning the Conference and sections may be viewed as a certain price paid for forwarding the expansion of the I.A.U.P.L. Such expansion involves, as mentioned, the function of encouraging the formation of new national associations; and the value of this should not be underestimated.

In general, the I.A.U.P.L. seems to have been quite active within the limits set by modest resources. It already has several tangible achievements to its credit. The International Association can be helpful to the American Association of University Professors, (1) by providing information on universities throughout the world which will facilitate a comparative perspective on our own problems; and (2) by providing contacts with colleagues abroad, who share many of our interests and ideals. The American Association, in return, may well be helpful to the International Association in respect to cooperation and good will.

LIBRARY ADDITIONS AT SMALL COST

By ALICE DULANY BALL
The United States Book Exchange, Inc.

The library budget in most colleges and universities is at all times on a precarious footing as it competes with other budgetary items, many of them obviously essential and some of them apparently less capable of postponement than the purchase of books. In recent years especially, the difficulty of finding sufficient funds for book purchases has been serious because of the lag of the war years, when publication was severely reduced, periodical files were hard to obtain, and the purchasing power of libraries diminished for obvious reasons. At present, with rising costs and declining enrollments, the best-disposed administration may find it impossible to increase purchases in compensation for the wartime lag, and difficult even to maintain the flow of annual accretions which is necessary for the normal health of a college library. At such a time administrative officers, librarians, and faculty members should welcome a plan which will enable an institution to make additions to its library at nominal cost, and at the same time get rid of its obsolete, duplicate, or otherwise unneeded accumulations.

Such a plan, which has been growing quietly for the past three years, should receive the interested attention of all who have anything to do with library purchases. The United States Book Exchange, Inc., is the logical outgrowth of the exchange of duplicates which has been the practice of American libraries for many years. The abundance of unneeded duplicates in most libraries (besides, in some cases, the institution's own publications) made some use of the surplus mandatory, and the familiar system of exchanges resulted. However, the success of the exchange plan of a given institution was dependent on a number of factors—the purpose of the plan, the aims of the library collections, the sufficiency of personnel to look after the work of exchange, and, of course,

the ability to locate another library which desired the surplus items and could in turn supply the items needed.

Leading American librarians conceived, as the practical answer to the problem of exchange, a central clearinghouse for duplicates, into which all materials surplus to the collections or the direct-exchange needs of libraries could be poured, and from which each institution could draw the publications it needed. The advantages of centralization of the vast store of duplicates were clear, in the completeness of files which would result, the creation of a single source to which to apply for wanted items, and the economy of handling exchange with one correspondent rather than hundreds. Most advantageous would be an agency which each library could deal with as it desired—from a single request for a rare item by an institution whose direct exchanges were well established and part of the regular library organization, to the complete handling of exchanges for a library which wished to send all of its duplicates unsorted and request all of its exchanges from the single source.

The establishment of the American Book Center for War-Devastated Libraries, Inc., after World War II, offered a possibility for setting up such a clearinghouse. Inheriting the stocks of the American Book Center, the United States Book Exchange began in 1949 to offer to libraries in this country just such services as are described above. Since that time the USBE has placed in libraries in the United States and Canada almost 250,000 items. The total cost to the institutions concerned has been about $43,000, in the form of handling fees which enable USBE, as a private, nonprofit agency, to operate.

These items have ranged from complete files of American scientific journals, needed by new institutions, to single rare items not obtainable anywhere else; and from the commonest American commercial journals to new publications in science and the humanities from Pakistan, Israel, or Ethiopia. Libraries can requisition their needs from monthly lists which go out from the Washington offices of USBE, or make their own requests for needed issues on 3 x 5 cards or slips. Foreign books too are available, but may be ordered only from lists issued by USBE.

All that is required of participating libraries is an equal number of duplicates to use in exchange, and the payment of shipping

charges and the nominal handling fees which enable USBE to offer the service. These fees range from ten cents to a dollar, according to the type of item concerned, with a cost for complete volumes of American journals that is somewhat lower than the per-issue price. Unlike commercial periodical back-number agencies, USBE does not give money credit for publications sent in, since it does not sell items. These publications are simply credited to the library that sends them in, to apply against present or future requests. The money required is the at-cost price of handling and making available the issues ordered. The cost averages less than thirty per cent of the commercial price, and USBE holds unfilled orders for as long as the participant library wishes.

USBE is sponsored by twelve national library associations, the four learned councils, the Engineers Joint Council, the Smithsonian Institution, and the Library of Congress. The officers and directors for 1951-1952 are as follows: President, Dr. Charles W. David of the University of Pennsylvania; Vice-President, Sidney B. Hill of the New York Bar Association; Secretary, Dr. Raymound L. Zwemer of the Library of Congress; Treasurer, Ralph L. Thompson of the District of Columbia Public Library; Board of Directors, Milton E. Lord of the Boston Public Library; John Fall of the New York Public Library; Irene M. Strieby of the Lilly Research Laboratories; James S. Thompson, representing the Engineers Joint Council; and Jack Dalton of the University of Virginia Library. Offices are in the building of the Library of Congress.

Any university or college library may participate in this co-operative venture An individual faculty member who is interested should ask the librarian of his institution for information about existent possibilities for exchange; if he finds that his institution is not a participant in the plan of the United States Book Exchange, he may obtain information by writing directly. If he has a particular problem concerning, for example, the acquisition of a certain serial set, it may be that the USBE can provide the answer. Inquiries should be directed to The United States Book Exchange, Inc., Library of Congress Building, Washington 25, D. C.

COMMON STOCKS AND A VARIABLE ANNUITY FOR COLLEGE PENSION PLANS

By R. McALLISTER LLOYD

Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America

Almost all faculty members in colleges and universities in the United States and Canada are or will become participants in one kind of a pension plan or another. These pensions have always been paid periodically for life in constant dollar amounts, the actual amount being determined at time of retirement. And it is of course comforting to know that a definite number of dollars will be received each month or each quarter. The prevailing concept through all pension planning, not just in academic circles, is the constant dollar payment.

The fluctuations in the cost of living in the past generation have focused attention on the weakness of this concept. The fixed dollar amount in times of inflation, as at present, will not purchase the necessities and comforts the retired professor expected. In many instances his plight is serious. Those of you now in active service are anxiously inquiring if there is some way to prevent this type of hardship affecting you.

Many readers of the *Bulletin* already know something of a new concept which has never before been applied to pension programs. It is an attempt to provide an annuity which will vary more closely with the cost of living. It is the recently announced proposal to establish the College Retirement Equities Fund.

The research to create the new Fund was done by Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association. This organization, incorporated in 1918, put on a practical contributory basis the pension arrangements for professors initiated by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1905. It has performed the double function of a financial institution funding the retirement programs for colleges and other educational organi-

zations, and an advisory service institution counseling such organizations on problems pertaining to pensions for their personnel. It took the leadership in establishing the principle of fully vested retirement policies, a concept which when put in practice permits scholars and other educational personnel to move freely from one institution to another without loss of accumulations on their retirement contracts. Many pension plans in industry and government service and some in colleges penalize the employee who migrates—often because of conditions beyond his control—from one job to another before a set retirement age has been reached.

In serving some 600 educational institutions and 79,000 individual policyholders, TIAA has become increasingly aware of the anxiety among educators as to the ability of their standard fixed dollar annuity contracts to provide in retirement the wherewithal to meet a rising cost of living. It has therefore conceived a new organization named College Retirement Equities Fund.

The proposal is the result of exhaustive research and, in recent months, of extensive study and discussion by leaders in the educational world. As the final step before announcing the plan, TIAA subjected it to scrutiny and discussion by a Special Commission of which Dr. Henry M. Wriston was the chairman. The Commission's report is appended to this paper.[1] The plan is to form a new corporation legally separated from TIAA except for common control at the top level. It will buy common stocks and other equity-type investments.

Enabling legislation is now pending in the New York State Senate and Assembly. Assuming its enactment, the way will be clear for a unique and novel device to create not only greater diversification among types of investments but also to provide better protection against variations in the cost of living.

II

In order to attain a wide degree of flexibility and choice for each institution and individual involved, TIAA will continue as a legal reserve life insurance company without change in investment objectives or type of contract offered, or without modi-

[1] See p. 733.

fying well-established concepts of good pension planning. Its annuity contracts will still provide a tested and essential base to any pension plan. Colleges and individuals not inclined to participate in the new Equities Fund may continue their present arrangements unaltered. Furthermore, many individuals will prefer to expect a retirement benefit measured in a fixed number of dollars, and thus will want to have at the time of retirement the usual type of TIAA annuity contract.

In cases where the college wishes to revise its pension plan so as to avail itself of the Equities Fund, it can give the individual the option to participate. However, because of the advisability of balanced diversification, not more than 50% of the total premium for retirement purposes will be permitted to go into the Equities Fund. It is not the objective of the Fund to be a speculative device which might bring wealth to retired college staff members but which might at other times result in their poverty-stricken old age. The objective would be to offer a greater degree of security in the retirement years than is now obtainable, regardless of the direction in which the economy moves.

The orthodox annuity providing a guaranteed fixed dollar income is essential for protection when business conditions are depressed and common stock prices are low. The option to participate in the Equities Fund would be offered as a partial hedge against inflation by providing more dollars in periods of high prices than are available in the regular annuity. By participating in the Equities Fund and electing to continue participation in it after he retired, a faculty member's means for retirement would be in three strata:

1. His Social Security benefit, if he is eligible.
2. His TIAA annuity providing a fixed dollar amount.
3. His Equities Fund participation providing a variable annuity.

An institution could decide that as part of its retirement plan it is appropriate for its teachers to have half of the periodic premium payments (made for them,) including half of their own contributions, go into equity investments. It could decide that a third or a quarter is a more appropriate maximum amount to be put into equities. Perhaps an institution would wish to leave the decision

as to participation and as to percentage to each staff member. There are many combinations of arrangements which an institution can choose in amending its pension plan, and likewise there will be a number of options to be considered by the individual when arranging his insurance, investments, and estate affairs.

Each payment to the Equities Fund on behalf of an individual will purchase a certain number of units, the number depending on the current value of each unit. The value would reflect not only the profits and losses, but the changes in the market value of the securities in the Fund. The participant would receive periodically an additional number of units arising from the Fund's cash dividend income.

The Bureau of Internal Revenue has already ruled that under present laws and regulations the participant will not be taxed either on the employer's contributions toward his retirement benefit or on the dividend earnings and capital gains on his share of the Equities Fund. At time of retirement he will be taxed according to the formulas in effect for annuities in the same way as his income from a TIAA fixed dollar annuity or any other annuity is now taxed.

The novel feature of the Equities Fund is the method of paying an annuity based on the value of shares in the Fund. Assuming that these shares rise in value in periods of inflation, the annuity payments will increase and thus give the participant an increased income to meet his higher living expenses. Like a fixed dollar annuity, the unit annuity would be payable for life. The annuity principle is a useful one, allowing the individual to use up capital as well as interest earnings without risk of outliving his income.

The same actuarial methods would be used in calculating the units payable for life as are used now by an insurance company in figuring the dollar payments for life. A participant in the Equities Fund at time of retirement would be given the option to convert his accumulation to a fixed dollar annuity with TIAA or to continue with the Equities Fund and receive a unit annuity. In addition, there will be the same options for survivor annuities, etc., as are available to TIAA policyholders.

The Equities Fund will promise the participant periodic payments of a fixed number of units for life, each payment of such

annuity units being converted into dollars according to the value of the annuity unit at the time of payment. The dollar value of each annuity unit will be calculated periodically; capital appreciation or depreciation in the Fund will be automatically reflected in the new unit value, which in turn will determine the dollar payments to the participant over the ensuing period.

III

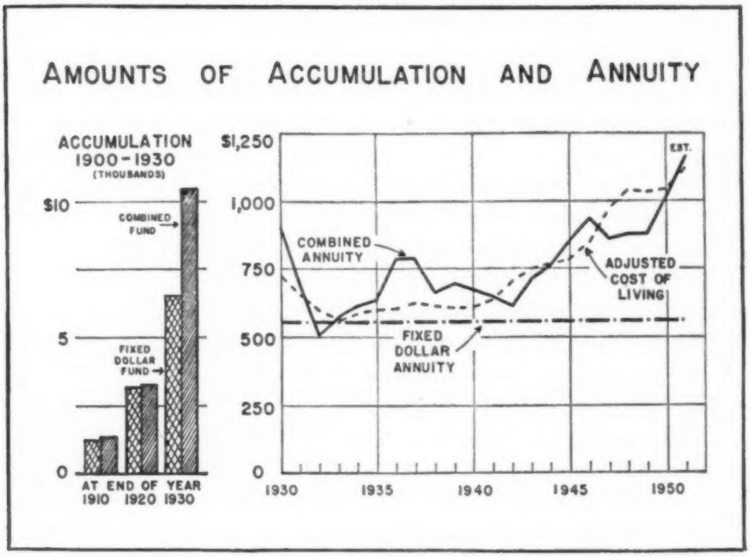
Below is a chart which illustrates how the plan would have worked in the past. It pictures the accumulations and retirement benefits for two individuals who joined separate theoretical retirement plans in 1900 at age 35. It assumes they contributed premiums of $100 a year until their age 65 in 1930. They then retired, reaching age 86 in 1951. Actually, of course, annuity premiums usually would have been much larger than this each year and would have increased with years of employment. The figures are based on past history when interest rates on conservative investments were much higher than they are now and when the mortality experience, annuity premiums, and other economic factors were different from the present. Similar methods have been used for charts showing other periods. This chart is especially interesting, however, because it shows the change from the accumulation period to the annuity period in 1930 during the well-remembered collapse in the stock market. This is the period of the most violent fluctuation in the entire era from 1880 to date. The chart indicates how the combined fund would have worked at such a time.

The purpose in presenting the chart is to explain the theory of the combined fund and the unit annuity and not to prophesy future results. In speaking of the combined fund and the combined annuity, we are showing the result of the combination of half of the premiums to the Equities Fund and half to TIAA. Other combinations might be preferred by colleges or by individual participants. The past results can be easily interpolated.

Professor A contributed toward a fixed dollar annuity of the type regularly issued by TIAA and other retirement systems. His $3000 in premiums ($100 a year x 30 years) would have grown

through the effect of compounding interest to \$6500 at time of his retirement in 1930, as shown by the columns at the left of the chart. The growth would have been slower in recent years because of lower prevailing interest rates. With this accumulation Professor A could have purchased a fixed dollar annuity of around \$553 a year, as shown at the right of the chart.

Professor B meanwhile had contributed half his premium (\$50 a year) to the same type of fixed dollar annuity as Professor A, and half to an Equities Fund annuity. The latter was assumed



to have been invested in over 400 common stocks by using the Cowles Commission and Standard & Poor's indexes covering a large majority of all listed stocks. This combined fund grew at about the same rate as the fixed dollar fund from 1900 to 1920, and then took a great spurt during the speculative common stock spree of the late 1920's.

After retirement in 1930 Professor B received a fixed dollar annuity purchased by half his total premiums, plus a unit annuity resulting from his accumulated share in the Equities Fund. The unit annuity computations are similar to those for traditional

dollar annuities. Thus a traditional annuity might provide $1000 annuity income each year for life, the unit annuity 1000 units each year. In valuing the units, current prices and yields of common stocks would be taken into consideration; thus the value of each unit might be $1.00 the first year, $1.10 the second year, 90 cents the third year, and so forth, with resulting annuity incomes of $1000, $1100, and $900, respectively.

The result of combining the fixed dollar and the unit annuities for Professor B is shown at the right of the chart. Notice that at the historic low in common stock prices in 1932, the combined annuity was only slightly smaller than the fixed dollar annuity; from that point forward it moved generally upward. This chart indicates the importance of investing in common stocks in both good times and bad, year after year, riding up as well as down with the market and obtaining the beneficial effects of dollar cost averaging in common stocks.

IV

There is no perfect pension plan. Unpredictable social and economic changes occur over the considerable span of years between the time a person starts to work for a living and his own death and that of his dependents. Only a few assumptions can be made with complete confidence. There is no clear-cut and exact answer to any question in the field of ecomonics or applied anthropology. Experts in the physical sciences frequently underestimate this fact. For instance, I can well remember talking with an astronomer who said in substance, "I can plot an eclipse of the sun one hundred years from now. I do not see why you cannot tell me what the stock market will do six months from now." With all the charts and figures and attempts made to prognosticate, there are still too many vagaries of human nature involved which may change the whole economic situation suddenly. No one can say that the participant in the new Equities Fund is going to be better off in the long future than he would be if he continued completely in the orthodox type of insurance company annuity or teachers' retirement system. Nevertheless, considering past economic history, it appears that the combined annuity plan

as proposed by TIAA with participation in the Equities Fund blended with participation in TIAA would offer a greater degree of diversification and protection against variations in the cost of living than any arrangement so far invented.

COLLEGE RETIREMENT EQUITIES FUND

Resolution Adopted by a Special Commission of Educators and Laymen and Endorsed by Trustees of TIAA Stock
New York, N. Y., October 5, 1951,

This Commission and the Trustees of TIAA Stock have studied the proposal for a College Retirement Equities Fund as presented by the officers of Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association, and now vote:

1. That a companion organization to TIAA, investing its funds entirely in equities and issuing unit annuities, offers real promise of enhancing the security of educators by providing more adequate retirement benefits and a partial protection against inflation.

2. That this system should be available on a voluntary basis to educational institutions and their staff members who wish to invest part of their annuity premiums in equities, with the TIAA fixed dollar annuities continuing to provide the foundation of retirement benefits.

3. That in order to assure continuity and unity of purpose, the board of trustees of the Equities Fund should be elected by Trustees of TIAA Stock in the same manner as the board of trustees of TIAA is now elected, providing for policyholder representatives, representatives of contributing institutions and businessmen of experience, especially in financial affairs and in the case of the new Fund, equity investments.

4. That the Equities Fund should be under the supervision of the Superintendent of Insurance of the State of New York as are life insurance companies, certain other pension funds, and TIAA itself. The New York State Legislature should be requested to enact the legislation necessary for its establishment.

5. That the Trustees of TIAA stock and the trustees and

officers of TIAA should proceed with all possible dispatch to set up a College Retirement Equities Fund, looking to the establishment of the Fund as an operating entity in 1952.

HENRY M. WRISTON, President of Trustees of TIAA Stock and Chairman of the Commission Meeting

Members of the Special Commission: ARTHUR S. ADAMS, *President*, American Council on Education; S. SLOAN COLT, *President*, Bankers Trust Company; RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*, American Association of University Professors; HORACE S. FORD, *Member of the Corporation*, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; DEVEREUX C. JOSEPHS, *President*, New York Life Insurance Company; LEROY E. KIMBALL, *President*, Association of American Colleges; DEANE W. MALOTT, *President*, Cornell University; JOHN S. MILLIS, *President*, Western Reserve University; WILLIAM SALTONSTALL, *Principal*, Phillips Exeter Academy; HERMAN B. WELLS, *President*, Indiana University; JOHN H. WILLIAMS, *Nathaniel Ropes Professor of Political Economy*, Harvard University.

Trustees of TIAA Stock: LAIRD BELL, Bell, Boyd, Marshall & Lloyd; VIRGIL M. HANCHER, *President*, State University of Iowa; R. McALLISTER LLOYD, *Chairman and President*, Teachers Insurance & Annuity Association; IRVING S. OLDS, *Chairman, Board of Directors*, U. S. Steel Corporation; FRANCIS T. P. PLIMPTON, Debevoise, Plimpton & McLean; H. W. PRENTIS, JR., *Chairman of the Board*, Armstrong Cork Company; HENRY M. WRISTON, *President*, Brown University.

INDIVIDUAL FEDERAL INCOME TAX IN 1952

By J. M. MAGUIRE
Harvard University

The Revenue Act of 1950 increased individual Federal income tax burdens by withdrawing substantial alleviations granted in the Revenue Act of 1948. Now the Revenue Act of 1951 has again markedly increased the load through its heightened scale of progressive rates. Some claim is made that individual income taxes have thus been pegged at an all-time high. This is difficult to substantiate, because introduction of the husband-wife split-income scheme since World War II throws out of gear direct comparisons of 1951 and 1952 rates with wartime rates. However, serious alarm is being manifested as to the ability of our economy to bear the new tax rates, individual and corporate in conjunction. The answer to this alarm probably lies in the field of mass psychology rather than in that of statistics and economics, and psychology here is bound to be largely affected by the general view of the efficiency, wisdom, and honesty of our government and particularly of its Bureau of Internal Revenue.

Since the Revenue Act of 1951 became law so late in the year, the rate increase on individuals was adjusted to take effect to the extent of only about one-sixth with respect to 1951 income, covered by the typical calendar year taxpayer's individual return filed on or before March 15, 1952. The full impact of the increase will hit calendar year taxpayers during and at the end of 1952.

Another economically painful factor in the situation is the strong recent manifestation of a penny-pinching attitude by enforcement officers in the Bureau of Internal Revenue. That this attitude should exist in the present long-drawnout public financial emergency is completely understandable. With frightening prospects of an unfavorable gap between Federal expenditures and receipts, official thought is bound to be given to ways and means of

adding items to swell individuals' gross income and subtracting items to diminish their deductions. Unluckily for teachers' solvency and peace of mind—although probably without any malevolence toward them—the penny-pinching expedients have seemed of late years to hit their profession peculiarly hard and often, sometimes in the way of explicit administrative rulings, sometimes by administrative performance throwing difficulties in the path of proper claims by teacher-taxpayers. Further detail on these points follows in due course.

Happily the Congressional attitude has been considerably more friendly toward taxpayers in the economic stratum, and having the financial interests typically attributed to the educational profession. Along with the necessary if regrettable rate increases have come an appreciable number of gratifying specific legislative alleviations. These, like the aggravations mentioned in the last preceding paragraph, are commented upon below. For the convenience of those readers already acquainted with what may be called the standard or recurrent explanations in this series of annual tax expositions, who wish to consider the new or contentious matters without wading through what are to them familiar commonplaces, the next section of the present article contains an alphabetically arranged directory of "high spots."

By way of final introductory caution, the author repeats that here, as in former years, he is writing for the cash receipts, calendar year basis taxpayer. The accrual individual taxpayer and the individual who is on a noncalendar fiscal year are rare birds to begin with and likely to be adequately sophisticated in the working lore of income taxation to boot.

Directory of "High Spots"

Annuities: New statutory provision as to "consideration paid" for survivor annuity. Pp. 756–757.

Authorship for gain: Recent decision taxing teacher as a professional author. Pp. 753 and 760.

"Away from home": Recent decisions refusing deduction of cost of meals on short business trips. P. 750.

Casualty losses: New statutory provision for carry-back and carry-over of casualty losses. P. 758.

Summer institutes: Tax problems. Pp. 741, 748–749, and 763.
Travel expense: Recent decision refusing deduction of cost of voluntary European trip. P. 751.

Return Forms, Particularly 1040

The items of Form 1040 for the 1951 calendar year are made the points of reference. Matters adequately explained by the Form or by official instructions are passed over. There will be little difficulty in transposing relevant comment to the appropriate items of the simpler Form 1040 A, if this form can be and is used. See the Form 1040 official instruction pamphlet, pp. 2–3, for advice about choosing the right form.

Page 1, Item 1, clause C: Observe that by virtue of a 1951 amendment, a person with a gross income of less than $600 may now qualify as a dependent; the former limit was $500.

Same Page and Item, clause D: Wide publicity has been given the fact that under the Revenue Act of 1951 unmarried persons who are "heads of households" are to receive an alleviation of tax to the extent of almost exactly half the alleviation which married couples can obtain by filing joint returns. This latest alleviation is not reflected in the current Form 1040 for the reason that it takes effect only for taxable years beginning after October 31, 1951. See Internal Revenue Code (hereafter abbreviated to I.R.C.) sec. 12(c). This is something pleasant to look forward to in connection with 1952 income tax liability.

Page 1, Item 2, Wages, salaries, etc.: Here are some of the matters covered by this comprehensive item which have particular concern for teachers—

Fellowships and like awards: In August, 1951, the Bureau of Internal Revenue published I.T. 4056 (1951 Internal Revenue Bulletin, no. 17, pp. 2–4).[1] This has to do with stipends under fellowship awards granted by an organization disguised for confidential purposes as "M Foundation." The core of the ruling is that when

[1] "I.T." designates a ruling by the Income Tax Unit (now reorganized into the Income Tax Division) of the Bureau; such rulings appear in the periodical called the Internal Revenue Bulletin, issued at two-week intervals; the issues of the Bulletin are collated, usually twice a year, into Cumulative Bulletins (abbreviated to C.B.); each Cumulative Bulletin bears as a prefix the year of issue—*e. g.*, 1950–2 indicates that the C.B. thus labeled is for the second half of the calendar year 1950.

the Foundation awards a grant or fellowship "for the training and education of an individual, either . . . in acquiring a degree or in otherwise furthering his educational development, no services being rendered as consideration therefor," the stipend is a gift under I.R.C. sec. 22(b)(3) and not to be included in the recipient's gross income. But if "the recipient of a grant or fellowship applies his skill and training to advance [advanced?] research, creative work, or some other project or activity, the essential elements of a gift... are not present, and the amount . . . is includible in the recipient's gross income."

This bears upon G.C.M. 5881, VIII - 1 C.B. 68[1], which states that scholarships and fellowships received in recognition of scholarly attainment or promise are not subject to tax, *e. g.*, the fellowship, scholarship, or grant from a foundation in recognition of scientific achievement. Will a distinction now be made between a grant to further scientific investigation, production of a history book, or the writing of "the great American novel" (all seemingly taxable under I.T. 4056), and the award of a prize of some sort for having done the job? Perhaps the prize will be treated as a gift windfall if it comes out of the blue, without candidacy for it by the recipient, and from a giver not economically benefited by the prize-winning work. The Form 1040 instructions at p. 5 list "contest prizes" as income which must be reported. Surely a Nobel Prize is not a "contest prize." But where a composer submitted in candidacy for a prize a symphony which he had long before written purely from love of his art, and won the prize, his winnings were held gross income and not a gift. *United States v. Robertson*, 190 F. 2d 680 (10th Cir. 1951), reversing a District Court decision in favor of the taxpayer. As has been indicated in previous years, this matter is far from settled so far as the courts are concerned. Indeed, the Supreme Court granted certiorari in the *Robertson* case while this article was being written. The attitude of the Bureau of Internal Revenue, however, is vigorously in favor of taxing such contest prizes. I.T. 3960, 1949-2 C.B. 13.

I.T. 4056 also seems to qualify I.T. 1343, I-1 C.B. 213, to the

[1] A General Counsel's Memorandum issued in 1929 before the present convenient dating in the titles of C.B.'s was adopted.

effect that half-salary sabbatical grants to professors of a college when on leave were not taxable to the recipients if paid from the income of a testamentary trust established for this purpose. Should such a grant be made for the purpose of enabling a professor during his leave to pursue advanced research, the Bureau would now probably claim that it must be included in gross income of the recipient. There has never been any doubt, of course, that half salary paid by the employing college or university to a professor on sabbatical leave is part of his gross income, whether the leave is a pure holiday or devoted to work.

In 1950 the Treasury Department, queried by the Department of State as to the taxable status of Fulbright grants, ruled that Fulbright research grants were "like the student grants, made for the training and education of the individual, even though in some cases the grantees have already received graduate degrees. They appear to be working in the capacity of students on an advanced level, but with a greater degree of independence." (Quotation from a letter of June 27, 1950, Secretary of the Treasury to the Secretary of State.) Hence these grants are to be treated as gifts. But the Fulbright grants to United States professors and teachers temporarily taking foreign posts were ruled to be includible in gross income. As to the tax position of such professors and teachers it should be remarked that the Commissioner of Internal Revenue has authority to extend the time for payment of tax on application of the taxpayer—an authority which may be justly exercised on grounds of hardship when compensation is being received in the form of nonconvertible currency. I.R.C. sec. 56 (c) (1) and Reg. 111, sec. 29.56-2. The Bureau also meets the difficulty arising when compensation is received in restricted foreign currency by allowing this to be treated as "deferable income" until its value can be reliably measured from the United States point of view. Mim. 6475 and amendments, 1950-1 C.B. 50, 54, 1951-1 C.B. 19. Incidentally, there are provisions permitting United States citizens who are bona fide residents of foreign countries for specified periods to exclude from gross income for Federal tax purposes foreign earned income. I.R.C. sec. 116 (a) (1)-(3), amended in 1951. Sometimes, too, the terms of tax treaties between the United States and foreign nations become important,

as in the cases of certain British professors recently visiting this country, who have found their United States earnings completely exempt from tax.

The industrial summer "institute," discussed at some length in last year's article on Federal income tax returns, may well fall within the effective range of I.T. 4056. Take, for instance, the announcement of 1951 summer programs for economists by Swift & Company. This prospectus, describing summer fellowships for field study, states: "The Fellowship stipend will be fifty dollars per week, plus railroad transportation to and from Chicago and week-day lunches (with officers and others of the company)."[1] The recipient of such a stipend must face the question whether his participation has been no more than "the training and education" of himself as "an individual" or has amounted to the application in practice of ripened professional skill. If the former only, the stipend is a nontaxable gift; if the latter, it is taxable as in the nature of salary or compensation for personal services. How far expenses of attending the institute may be deductible from gross income, if the stipend is included therein, depends upon considerations developed further along in this article.

Value of living quarters, subsistence, etc.: Educational institutions occasionally supply some of their teachers with living quarters or meals or both, aside from ordinary monetary compensation. As to whether the fair value of the benefits thus received in kind must be added to a teacher's gross income, the Treasury Regulations have long provided that if these benefits were supplied not as compensation for services but "for the convenience of the employer" their value need not be computed and added to the compensation otherwise received. Reg. 111, sec. 29.22 (a)-3. It came to be commonly believed that "convenience of the employer" was the overriding factor in such a situation. If, for instance, a college professor had as one of his duties maintenance of proper discipline in a dormitory, and for that purpose was assigned without charge a room in the dormitory and expected regularly to occupy that room, the professor was not chargeable for income tax purposes with the

[1] For information respecting these institutes, the writer is indebted to Professor Karl D. Reyer of Louisiana State University.

rental value of the room. Mim. 6472, 1950-1 C.B. 15, undermined this belief by asserting: "The 'convenience of the employer' rule is simply an administrative test to be applied only in cases in which the compensatory character of such benefits is not otherwise determinable." Consequently, in the case imagined above, if the Bureau representatives were able to decide from the circumstances of the bargain between college and professor that the value of the dormitory room was intended as part of the compensation, the fact that professorial occupancy was a convenience or even a necessity to the college for proper policing of its dormitory would not prevent inclusion of the rental value as part of the salary paid. This mimeograph ruling stirred up something of a storm, which resulted in intricate special rulings respecting lodging and meals furnished to managers and service staffs of hotels, to apartment house superintendents, and to hospital employees. These special rulings have been published in the Commerce Clearing House Standard Federal Tax Reporter. 515 CCH ¶¶6031, 6120, and 6191. They are too extended to be reviewed here in detail. Cf. the paragraph *Meals and Living Quarters* on p. 5 of the Form 1040 instructions. It is worth noting, however, that the hospital ruling suggested hospital officials might facilitate tax administration by certifying to the local Collector of Internal Revenue the status of each case in which quarters and meals were not deemed compensatory. Such certification would not, of course, be conclusive as to the taxability of the employee, but obviously would have persuasive value. The exact form of certification is spelled out in the ruling. Presumably college and university authorities might effectively follow like procedure in dealing with this problem as it affects their operations.

Group life insurance and other marginal benefits: Many colleges and universities have arranged to cover their faculties by group life insurance, in term and not permanent form, the teachers each paying a moderate specified amount toward the cost and the employing institutions shouldering the rest of the cost. Reg. 111, sec. 29.22(a)-3, states: "Premiums paid by an employer on policies of group life insurance covering lives of his employees, the beneficiaries of which are designated by the employees, are not income to the employees." The reason for this self-denying attitude

by the taxing authorities is not too clear. Apparently group life insurance was regarded as what sophisticates like to call "a peripheral benefit of employment," along with warm and comfortable working quarters, rest rooms, low-priced cafeterias which underbid the market, gymnasia, and playing fields—all these being deemed facilities furnished for the convenience of employers with an eye to high morale and more efficient service. Whatever the ground of exclusion from gross income, the status of employer-paid group life insurance premiums in the eyes of the Bureau of Internal Revenue is now distinctly precarious. Mim. 6477, 1950-1 C.B. 16, refused to extend the group life insurance immunity to group-permanent life insurance policies. Warning hints have been received that the Treasury Department is considering complete eradication of the group life insurance sentence quoted above in this paragraph. But, very recently indeed, a carefully considered unpublished letter ruling from the Commissioner has extended to "collective insurance" the same treatment as is accorded group insurance. Under "collective insurance" each individual employee has a separate policy; otherwise, the operation is substantially like that of a group insurance plan. Turning to another field of marginal benefit, apparently reliable information is to the effect that the Bureau has changed its view about the taxability of reimbursement to an employee for moving costs incurred when shifting from one employer to another, or from an old place of employment to a new one. The new view is understood to be that reimbursement not exceeding the actual cost of moving is not to be treated as taxable income.

Retirement allowance contributions: Many teachers in active service must decide whether they are bound to include, as part of gross income, contributions to the cost of deferred retirement annuities made by the institutions which these teachers serve. Under some retirement plans, educational institutions have set up trusts to which periodical payments are made for the ultimate benefit of teachers after retirement. Probably comparatively few such arrangements are now in operation, and any teacher participating under such a plan will do best to ascertain from the financial officers in charge whether he is bound to treat as gross income the contributions made for his benefit by the employer institution.

The other and much more common method of handling the retirement problem is to purchase deferred annuity policies from the TIAA or an ordinary insurance company. This second situation is explicitly covered by I.R.C. sec. 22(b) (2) (B) and by Reg. 111, sec. 29.22 (b) (2)-5, the latter explaining that, if an employer is an organization exempt from income tax because operated for educational purposes, an employee is not required to include in his current income the amount contributed by the employer for purchase of a retirement annuity contract. A teacher *is* required to include in current gross income the amount currently contributed by deduction from his gross salary for purchase of such a contract. As to the taxability of annuity payments after retirement, particularly Carnegie and connected payments, see p. 754 (paragraph with inset head *Page 2, Schedule E, Income from annuities or pensions*).

In governmentally supported educational institutions retirement and death benefits are built up by mandatory pay-roll deductions and contributions from the government. As in the cases already mentioned, the amounts of the pay-roll deductions must be included in current gross income of the teachers. The governmental contributions are not so includible. I.T. 3362, 1940-1 C.B. 18, pay-roll deductions, and 454 CCH ¶6181, special ruling of April 13, 1945, employer's contributions.

So far as the Social Security system for old age and survivorship insurance benefits has been adopted in private or governmental schools, colleges, and universities but little need be added here. Sums withheld from salaries for payment of Social Security tax are not to be deducted from gross income for purposes of Federal income tax. I.R.C. sec. 1402. The contributions exacted by taxation from the employing institutions are not additional gross income to the taxpaying teachers. No citation can be given, but this is common sense.

Long-term work: A teacher may participate in a long-term project involving rendition of personal services which entitle him to lump sum compensation at their completion. He may, for instance, carry out a contract to write a book requiring prolonged preliminary investigation to compile the necessary information. If these personal services cover 36 calendar months or more

from beginning to completion, and the author receives at least 80 per centum of his total compensation in one taxable year, the income tax attributable to any part of the receipt which is included in his gross income shall not be greater than the aggregate of taxes attributable thereto if this part had been included in gross income ratably over that part of the period of work preceding the date of receipt. I.R.C. sec. 107(a).

There is also special statutory provision for handling the related case in which a teacher, working independently and not under contract, receives in one taxable year a large proportion of the gross income in respect of an invention or a literary, musical, or artistic composition which it takes him a long time to perfect or produce. Details of this provision are very intricate. The minimum work period is again 36 calendar months, and the taxpayer must receive in the one taxable year at least four times as much gross income from this source as he receives "therefrom in previous taxable years and the twelve months immediately succeeding the close of the taxable year. . ." I.R.C. §107(b). Compliance with the requirements of the provision results in limitation of "the tax attributable to the part of such gross income of the taxable year which is not taxable as a gain from the sale or exchange of a capital asset held for more than 6 months" to an amount "not... greater than the aggregate of the taxes attributable to such part had it been received ratably over that part of the period preceding the close of the taxable year but not more than thirty-six calendar months."

In *Iliff D. Richardson*, 14 T.C. (the abbreviation refers to the reports of the Tax Court of the United States) 547 (1950), a taxpayer successfully claimed the benefit of the provision just described, he having decided not later than November 1, 1941, to write a book based on his war experiences; lost his original notes in April, 1942, by shipwreck; lost his rewritten notes the next month; completed a rewriting late in 1942; continued to keep memoranda until late 1944; furnished a publisher with a manuscript and a map in January and February, 1945; and sold the film rights on April 6, 1945. Although the book did not cover experiences before April 9, 1942, the court held that the earlier period of work might be included in calculating the 36-month minimum with respect to

income received in 1945. The Commissioner, while he contested the taxpayer's claim before the Tax Court, has now acquiesced in the decision.

United States v. Robertson, already mentioned in connection with income from prize contests, presented an interesting problem under the long-term project provision. Mr. Robertson had composed his prize symphony between 1937 and 1939. It did not win the prize until 1947. The composer claimed the benefits of I.R.C. sec. 107, and argued that he should be allowed to throw the prize money back for income tax purposes to the three years in the 1930's preceding completion of the work. Income tax rates in these years were comparatively low. The Commissioner agreed that the composer should have the benefits of the long-term provisions but contended that the statutory wording "over that part of the period preceding the close of the taxable year but not more than thirty-six calendar months" required that the spreading of this prize income should be over 1945–1947. Income tax rates in these years were very high. The court declared that the Commissioner was right. Is this a ridiculous result, considering that not a lick of work was done on the symphony in 1945–1947 and that it did not appear even to have been on the market during that period?

See also the comment below on *Page 2, Schedule D, Gains and losses from sales or exchanges* (p.752).

Extra payments by reason of death: Educational institutions often make extra payments, over and above salary directly attributable to services actually rendered, to widows or children of professors who die in harness. Frequently the sums so paid are calculated on the basis of monthly salary at the time of death. They may or may not have been bargained for or promised. Until 1950 the general belief or at least hope was that when there had been no advance bargaining or promise such payments were nontaxable gifts. I.T. 4027, 1950-2 C.B. 9, shakes this view by declaring "that irrespective of a 'plan,' voluntary or involuntary, definite or indefinite, . . .payments made by an employer to the widow of a deceased officer or employee, in consideration of services rendered by the officer or employee, are includible in the gross income of the widow for Federal income tax purposes." There is plenty of continuing controversy about this matter, and ground for contending

that the facts of each case must be carefully examined to make sure whether the payment is income or a gift. See *Bausch's Estate v. Commissioner*, 186 F. 2d 313 (2d Cir. 1951), where payments to decedents' estates were held taxable as income, but the status of payments to widows was left to future adjudication.

The Revenue Act of 1951 here enters the scene by amending I.R.C. sec. 22(b)(1) to exclude from gross income amounts received "under a contract of an employer providing for the payment of such amounts to the beneficiaries of an employee, paid by reason of the death of the employee," with a top limit of $5000 for exclusion with respect to any one employer. This involves treating such payments as payments under life insurance contracts by reason of the death of the insured are treated. Whether the new statutory provision will affect the attitude of the Bureau and the courts with respect to noncontractual post-mortem payments by employers is anybody's guess. It seems incongruous to tax a voluntary payment when a contractual payment goes untaxed. But how about the statutory top limit? Could the judges by analogy import that limit into their dealings with voluntary payments, or would such action be a *tour de force* incompatible with proper judicial restraint?

Adjusted gross income—allowable deductions from wages, salaries, etc.: Certain deductions are allowed for purposes of reducing gross income to adjusted gross income. Those most likely to be available to a teacher are "expenses of travel, meals, and lodging while away from home, paid or incurred" by him "in connection with the performance by him of services" as a teacher, and allowable deductions other than the foregoing "which consist of expenses paid or incurred" by the teacher in this same connection "under a reimbursement or other expense allowance arrangement with his employer." I.R.C. sec. 22(n)(2) and (3). The limited deductions thus permitted correspond to deductions otherwise permissible in calculating net income. But shifting them into the earlier process of calculating adjusted gross income has practical significance because their subtraction in that process does not prevent the taxpayer from using the standard deduction.

In connection with teachers' traveling expenses an annoying administrative difficulty has manifested itself. A ruling of respect-

ably long standing states that expenses of transportation and meals and lodging incurred in attending teachers' conventions in this country, if not reimbursed, are deductible ordinary and necessary business expenses in computation of net income. I.T. 3448, 1941-1 C.B. 206.[1] This ruling would seem equally applicable to computation of adjusted gross income, for Reg. 111, sec. 22(n)-1 says: "Traveling expenses paid or incurred by an employee in connection with his employment while away from home which are deductible from gross income in computing net income may be deducted from gross income in computing adjusted gross income." Yet local representatives of the Bureau of Internal Revenue have for two or three years been reported as refusing to allow the latter deduction in connection with expense of attending teachers' conventions unless such attendance was *required* by the employing institutions. It was not enough that an employing institution encouraged convention attendance by its teachers or even contributed a fixed sum to cover part of the expenses of any teacher who did attend. This position of the Bureau officials seems dubious on technical grounds and unsound in practical principle. Teachers are highly trained and responsible employees, properly given much discretion in mapping their courses of conduct. Many of their "duties" must be left to their good conscience and judgment, not made matters of detailed administrative command. Unless the Treasury is prepared to modify I.T. 3448 by adding to it the idea of institutional "requirement," attitude of the field representatives of the Bureau should be reconsidered. It should be added as a cheering note that in one instance reported to the writer from the State of Washington the local Bureau representatives did during 1951 recede from the hostile position above described and allow deduction of unreimbursed expenses of attendance at the meeting of the Modern Language Association of America.

Here it is well to recur briefly to the summer institute problem. If expense allowances granted in connection with these institutes offset what would otherwise be deductible payments in computa-

[1] The proviso about reimbursement is misleading under the present express provision as to reimbursed expenses. The approved method of income tax return accounting is to enter the reimbursement as gross income and offset it by the expense. Reg. 111, sec. 29.23(a)-2.

tion of adjusted gross income, do they come "under a reimbursement or other expense allowance arrangement with [a teacher's] employer"? An affirmative answer justifies an adjusted gross income computation which includes the amount of the expense allowance, and offsets against it the expenses; a negative answer prevents this computation and compels the taxpayer to itemize his expenses, instead of taking the optional standard deduction, if he wishes fairly to balance outgo against intake.

Another cause of controversy with respect to expenses of travel has been the phrase "away from home." The Bureau, determined not to allow deduction of commuting expenses, contends that "home" in the tax sense means something like established or principal place of business, and not what it means in colloquial usage. In addition the Bureau asserts that to be "away from home" one must remain away at least overnight. In the case of *Kenneth Waters*, 12 T.C. 414 (1949), the taxpayer proved that he managed one of the stores in a grocery chain and was required to make a 72-mile daytime round trip each Sunday to report to the manager of the chain. Taxpayer made these trips in his own car, was not reimbursed for the cost, and claimed a deduction for "traveling expenses" at the rate of 6 cents per mile. The Commissioner sought to sustain disallowance of the deduction on the strength of the "you've got to stay out all night" rule. Deciding in the taxpayer's favor, 12 of the 16 Tax Court judges joined in an opinion asserting that the foregoing rule was without statutory justification and invalid. Two judges concurred only in result, without explaining the difference of their reasoning. Two judges dissented. Despite this decision, the Bureau continues to insist that you've got to stay out all night. Form 1040 instructions, p. 5.

Not even the dissenters in the *Waters* case denied that the taxpayer's motoring costs were business expenses. They appear to concede that if the taxpayer had itemized his deductions in order to compute gross income, he might have included these costs as an itemized deduction. But the taxpayer had elected to make a short form return without itemization in this respect, and it was the dissenters' view that the costs above described did not qualify as "expenses of travel . . . *while away from home*" (emphasis supplied) which might be subtracted in computing adjusted gross

income. This matter, then, is related to the convention expense problem discussed above. It should be noted, though, that so far as the cost of meals is concerned, the courts seem to go along with "you've got to stay out all night." *Fred Marion Osteen*, 14 T.C. 1261 (1950), railway postal clerk away from home regularly 8 P. M. to 2:15 A. M., denied itemized deduction for cost of meals eaten about 11 P. M.; *Summerour v. Allen*, 99 F. Supp. 318 (D.C. N.D. Ga. 1951), insurance agent traveling over three counties but always getting home for the night, denied deduction for cost of meals taken on the road—for such deduction to be allowed, travel must be more extended.

The Supreme Court of the United States has held that a lawyer residing and having an office in Jackson, Mississippi, who was an officer of a railroad with headquarters in Mobile, Alabama, might not deduct costs of travel incurred in shuttling back and forth between Jackson and Mobile. The opinion throws emphasis on the idea that these costs were not incurred in the pursuit of the business of the employer railroad. *Commissioner v. Flowers*, 326 U. S. 465 (1946). How this affects a General Counsel's Memorandum approving deduction of railroad fare expended by a teacher in travelling from his place of regular employment to a place of temporary employment in a summer school is not entirely clear. The summer school ruling is G.C.M. 10915, XI-2 C.B. 245. There was also in January, 1950, a special ruling that a teacher requested by the local school department to accept a one-year exchange appointment to an English school, thereafter returning to the American post, might deduct expenses of travel to and from England as well as the cost of meals and lodging while there. 505 CCH ¶ 6052. Plainly, however, this would have to be modified if the English employment became indefinite instead of temporary; perhaps even if the employment were extended for a second year. See *Ney v. United States*, 171 F. 2d 449 (8th Cir. 1948), which the Supreme Court of the United States refused to review, 336 U. S. 967 (1949), where supposedly temporary wartime employment of a businessman extended over more than three years; and *Andrews v. Commissioner*, 179 F. 2d 502 (4th Cir. 1950), where a Boston teacher took indefinite wartime employment in Washington. Furthermore, there is a tendency to demand that the sort of edu-

cational roaming illustrated in the exchange case above be practically under orders, and not at the teacher's free will, if expense deductions are to be allowed. Compare *Manoel Cardozo*, 17 T.C. 3 (1951), where a university teacher unsuccessfully sought to deduct expense of a trip to Europe in the summer of 1947, which trip was found to have been "voluntary and undertaken to increase his prestige, improve his reputation for scholarship and learning, and thus attract opportunities in the field of scholarship or education, and to equip himself so that in his judgment he would be better fitted to perform [his] duties. . . ."; the opinion remarks: "The university authorities did not authorize the trip nor was it required in order to retain his professorship." See comment below on *Hill v. Commissioner* (p.764) and *Osborn* (p.764).

The general problem of deductibility and nondeductibility under I.R.C. sec. 23 of various kinds of expenses is further analyzed on p.758 (under inset head *Page 3, Itemized deductions*).

Page 2, Schedule C.—Profit (or loss) from business or profession: We all know that in the eyes of the Bureau a professor is a kind of employee, and that his salary earned in this capacity fits under Item 2 on the first page of Form 1040. But suppose he writes money-making books, does consulting work, delivers commencement addresses for compensation as well as applause—has he now branched out into a business or profession the receipts from and expenses of which should be reported in the summary lines on Page 2 and the large separate sheet headed Schedule C? The answer should be affirmative, if the teacher is his own master in these outside gainful activities. Practically, it has not in the past made much taxable difference whether Schedule C was or was not used, except that this Schedule allowed more deductions without forfeiting the chance to take advantage of the optional standard deduction. But beginning with the taxable year 1951 the Social Security tax on self-employment income does necessitate use of Schedule C in all appropriate cases. The rate of this tax is $2^1/_4\%$ instead of the $1^1/_2\%$ imposed and withheld with respect to wages. The self-employed person has no employer to help carry the cost of his social security coverage.

Form 1040 instructions, p. 7, give the necessary fundamental explanations respecting the self-employment tax, and there are

other instructions on the back of Schedule C itself. Observe that if a taxpayer receives *wages (or salaries)* totaling at least $3,600 (see Schedule C, Item 30) he need pay no self-employment tax, because the withholding by his employer or employers will fully discharge his Social Security tax obligation.

Differentiation between self-employment and employment by others has given legislators and lawyers plenty of work, but for the immediate purpose a simple test will suffice. So far as a teacher's compensation is subjected to withholding on account of Social Security tax, he should report it in Item 2 on the first page of Form 1040; so far as it is not subjected to such withholding, he should include it in Schedule C and carry over the result to the Schedule C Summary on the second page of Form 1040. Typically a teacher will find Schedule C very ill-adapted to his kind of self-employment, but he can make it do.

Obviously Schedule C provides a possible basis for discussing permissible itemized deductions from gross income, but it seems less confusing to the academic reader to have all deduction material collected in one place. That place comes below, following the paragraph heading *Page 3, Itemized deductions*, on p. 758.

Page 2, Schedules A and B—Income from dividends and interest: In these schedules on the 1950 Form 1040 taxpayers were required to list names *and addresses* of corporations declaring dividends and of payers of interest. The 1951 Form 1040 requires only the names. Thank goodness!

Page 2, Schedule D—Gains and losses from sales or exchanges: The problem of taxing gains, or allowing losses, from sales or exchanges is a matter of notorious difficulty. The Revenue Act of 1951 has considerably changed the applicable law. The separate Schedule D used in this connection with Form 1040 guides the taxpayer by its layout, starting on the face of the Schedule and carrying over to the back; the back also bears instructions. A little additional comment may be helpful.

This comment has to do first with the matter of authorship, invention, etc. On p. 745 *supra*, in the discussion of long-term projects, there is passing mention of "gain from the sale or exchange of a capital asset held for more than 6 months." This kind of gain when taxed to an individual receives favored treatment, no matter

what tax rate brackets affect it, as well as having its maximum tax burden subject to a ceiling of 25% for 1951 (26% for 1952). Aside from the ceiling, the favored treatment amounts to a 50% reduction of tax burden as compared with ordinary income. To close an elusive tax loophole, the method of computation will be changed for 1952, but this general result will hold good. The ceiling, when it comes into play, increases the favorable differential. Prior to 1950 not only an invention or a patent, but also a copyright or a manuscript might be a capital asset. General Eisenhower discovered this, and saved himself a lot of tax. But now, by a definitional amendment, "capital assets" does not include "a copyright; a literary, musical, or artistic composition; or similar property" if held by "a taxpayer whose personal efforts created such property . . ." I.R.C. sec. 117 (a)(1)(C)(i). So this chance of tax saving has gone a-glimmering for the author or artist, although not for the inventor. The loss to teachers is not very great. "Capital assets" have long not included "property held by the taxpayer primarily for sale to customers in the ordinary course of his trade or business. . ." I.R.C. sec. 117(a)(1)(A). So professional or habitual authors or inventors for profit could not shelter their selling gains under this protective provision. See *Paul Reece Rider*, 16 T.C. 1456 (1951), presenting the very familiar picture of a teacher writing profitable books on the subject he teaches—in this case a total of nine books; the holding is that the proceeds of authorship were ordinary income and not capital gain; the taxpayer is reported to have appealed the case. Also, an individual taxpayer's income has to run pretty high even under the 1951–52 rate scale—*e. g.*, in 1951 husband and wife needed over $32,000 surtax net income in a joint return—to make the ceiling rate a tax saver.

Second, a welcome and meritorious amendment in 1951 enables a taxpayer who sells his "principal residence" at a gain to avoid immediate inclusion of the gain in gross income except to the extent that the selling price of the old residence exceeds the cost of purchasing a new residence, provided the purchase of the latter occurs neither earlier than one year before the sale nor later than one year after the sale. Exchange of one house for another is treated like a sale. This is a generalized statement of the effect of

elaborate provisions, including various ifs and buts. The exact statutory wording should be studied whenever and as soon as this kind of deal is contemplated. I.R.C. secs. 112(n), 112(f), 113(a)(9), 113(b)(1), 117(h), and 276(e); also Form 1040 instructions, pp. 7–8. At a time of serious inflation apparent "gain" on sale of a residence is likely to be fundamentally fictitious because of the necessity of sinking the whole price, and maybe more, in a new place to live.

Page 2, Schedule E, Income from annuities or pensions: After retirement peculiar problems arise respecting retirement pay. Sums periodically paid retired teachers in connection with their profession may be either (a) continued compensation in consideration of past services, (b) gifts, (c) purchased annuities, or (d) distributions from trust funds. Possibility (d) is not discussed.

Deferred compensation: A retiring allowance from the employing institution, toward which the retired teacher has made no contribution, is typically treated as continued compensation and taxed as ordinary income. See Reg. 111 sec. 29.22(a)(2); G.C.M. 14593, XIV-1 C.B. 50; and 485 CCH ¶ 8746, dealing with retirement annuities to state or city employees.

Gift allowances: A retiring allowance or pension from a source other than the employing institution, toward the cost of which allowance or pension the retired teacher has made no contribution, may be a gift and therefore properly excluded from the teacher's gross income. The outstanding example of this kind of arrangement in the educational field is found in the retiring allowances and widows' pensions paid by the Carnegie Foundation. These payments have been ruled to be gifts or gratuities. L.O. 1040, 3 C.B. 120; and see again Reg. 111, sec. 29.22(a)(2). The ruling first cited does not extend to payments under Andrew Carnegie's testamentary provisions.

The Carnegie Foundation has for various reasons beyond its control been unable to continue granting these allowances and pensions on the full scale originally anticipated. In consequence the Foundation's payments have been augmented from at least two sources. First, there has been a general augmentation by the Carnegie Corporation. Second, individual colleges and universities have provided for additional augmentations. The tax status

of the Carnegie Corporation's augmentations is still somewhat in doubt, but the Bureau now apparently insists that the recipients render them for income tax purposes as purchased annuities. As to taxation of such annuities, see below. Individual college and university augmentations are taxable according to the nature of the respective arrangements under which they are paid.

While an employer institution may pay a teacher a retirement bonus, allowance, or pension under such circumstances that it will be deemed a gift, this situation is rarely recognized as having arisen, particularly if regular periodical payments are made. But there are exceptions. In one case a pastor, after serving for many years without increase in salary, was compelled by ill-health to retire; he was in serious financial need; his congregation spontaneously and "moved by affectionate regard . . . and gratitude" voted him $2000 annual "salary or honorarium . . . with no pastoral authority or duty . . . ." The Commissioner's treatment of this allowance as taxable compensation on account of past services was overthrown by the Court of Appeals, although previously sustained in the Tax Court. *Schall v. Commissioner*, 174 F. 2d 893 (5th Cir. 1949). Contrast *Thomas L. Grace*, 6 T.C.M. 770, CCH Dec. 15, 891 (M), affirmed 166 F. 2d 1022 (2d Cir. 1948), which is interesting although not a retirement case—it holds taxable a lump sum "gift" to an employee at the end of 40 years' service.

Purchased annuities: Most plans for educational retirement allowances now involve either literally or in substance the purchase of annuity contracts, the purchase price having been amassed by a combination of pay-roll deductions and employers' contributions. Periodical payments to the beneficiaries of such contracts are taxed under a special rule (I.R.C. sec. 22 (b)(2)) which can most easily be explained in terms of a specific illustration.

Suppose a teacher is retired as of September 1, 1951, having undergone pay-roll deductions aggregating $10,000 toward the cost of a retirement annuity, his employer having contributed for the same purpose an equal sum. The retired teacher receives in 1951 four monthly annuity installments of $200 each. With respect to those installments he should include in gross income for the taxable year 1951 an amount equal to 3 per centum per annum of the aggregate he has contributed to the consideration for the

annuity. Assuming that the employer's contributions have not been taxable to the teacher as part of the latter's income during his active career, this aggregate contribution is $10,000, and the amount to be included in gross income for 1951 is $100 (3 per centum of $10,000 for 4 months). The remaining $700 is treated as a nontaxable return of principal investment. If the employer's contributions had been currently taxable to the teacher, they would be included in the basis for the 3 per centum calculation to raise it to $20,000 so that the inclusion in gross income would become $200 and the exclusion $600. This seems illogical, but the statute requires it. Reg. 111, sec. (b)(2)-5.

Continuing the illustration into 1952, when the retired teacher receives $2400 in annuity payments, his inclusion in gross income for that year will be $300 or $600 according to the amount of his basis for the 3 per centum calculation. The process of partial exclusion is to be continued until the aggregate exclusions equal the principal underlying the annuity ($10,000 under the first hypothesis, $20,000 under the second). Thereafter the whole annuity must be included in gross income. On the $10,000 hypothesis, capital recovery will be completed during 1956; on the $20,000 hypothesis it will be so far postponed that the retired teacher must live long to accomplish it. For another example of calculation see I.T. 3364, 1940-1 C.B. 19. Parenthetically, it is be to noted that what is called the $20,000 hypothesis will not be applicable except in case of a teacher in a proprietary, nonexempt educational institution operating a retirement plan which fails to meet statutory requirements laid down by the I.R.C. For obvious reasons, this rare case is not discussed at length either here or on pp. 743–744 *supra* (*Retirement allowance contributions*).

Secondary beneficiaries: Wisely planned teachers' retirement schemes often provide for the needs of secondary beneficiaries, typically widows, after the death of the teachers primarily concerned. This is true, for instance, of the Carnegie system for retirement allowances and widows' pensions. Until 1951 it was substantially accurate to say that these secondary beneficiaries stepped into the shoes of the primary beneficiaries and had corresponding federal tax liabilities or freedom from such liabilities. The Revenue Act of 1951, however, has made amendments causing

the "consideration paid" by a widow or other successor to the primary annuitant under a purchased joint (or first life) and survivor annuity contract to become in many instances the fair market value of the unexpired annuity obligation at the time of the primary annuitant's death. I.R.C. secs. 22(b)(2)(C) and 113(a)(5). That is, if the original "consideration paid" for a joint and survivor annuity contract, calculated as indicated in the preceding text, was $40,000 and the fair market value of the survivor's interest as included in determining the value of the primary annuitant's gross estate was $30,000 (or $50,000 by reason of the current higher cost of annuities), the estate valuation figure and not $40,000 would be used as the basis of the 3% calculation by the surviving annuitant. Obviously this is a tricky technical matter, and many survivor annuitants will need skilled advice.

Social Security: Old-age and survivors Social Security benefits are exempt from federal income tax. I.T. 3194, 1938-1 C.B. 114; I.T. 3447, 1941-1 C.B. 191; cf. I.T. 3229, 1938-2 C.B. 136.

Page 2, Schedule F, Income from rents and royalties: So-called "royalties" on books written or edited by teachers do not always belong in this schedule. G.C.M. 236, VI-2 C.B. 27, issued in 1927, seems to mean that if an author agrees in advance as an employee or independent contractor to write an article or book for a publisher, the latter to copyright and own the product and pay compensation to the author, the payments are compensation for personal services; but if the author first writes the article or book and then sells, leases, or rents "his intellectual product" (this may mean the manuscript, or possibly the copyright, if any) to the publisher, his return therefrom is income from property. See also *E. P. Oppenheim*, 31 B. T. A. 563 (1934);[1] *Misbourne Pictures Ltd. v. Johnson*, 90 F. Supp. 978 (D.C. S.D. N.Y. 1950),[2] affirmed 189 F. 2d 774 (2d Cir. 1951); and I.T. 2735, XII-2 C.B. 131. A "royalty" received under the latter type of arrangement would apparently belong in Schedule F, with a "royalty" received under the former type of arrangement being normally regarded as income from business or profession to be entered in Schedule C and thence reflected

[1] "B.T.A." means the Board of Tax Appeals, ancestor of the present Tax Court.
[2] The U. S. District Court case is helpful because it briefly reviews earlier decisions.

into the summary of this Schedule on p. 2 of Form 1040 and finally into Item 3.

Page 3, Itemized deductions: An individual taxpayer must elect between the standard deduction and itemized deductions. That election, once made, used to become irrevocable on the due date for filing the return. Now more time may be allowed for change of election. I.R.C. sec. 23(aa)(7). In connection with itemized deductions the instruction pamphlet is helpful at many places from p. 5 on. Nevertheless, a statement in other words of the principles underlying the use of these six boxes or schedules, and mention of a few details, may be serviceable:

With respect to losses (fourth box of the six) it must be remembered both here and in filling out Schedule D (p. 2 of Form) that for an individual a loss is not deductible unless (A) not compensated by insurance or otherwise *and* (B) suffered (1) in trade or business, *or* (2) in a transaction entered into for profit, *or* (3) from fire, storm, shipwreck, or other like casualty, or from theft. I.R.C. sec. 23(e). For instance, loss on sale of a residence which the taxpayer has occupied as his dwelling-house up to the time of sale is not deductible although a gain on such a sale is taxable as a capital gain, subject to new provisions mentioned above on p. 753.

A 1951 amendment of I. R. C. sec. 122(d)(5) allows casualty losses which are deductible to be applied against income of prior and subsequent years, if they are so large as more than to nullify income of the years in which they occur. For illustration, imagine a professor with a salary of $5000 and no other income. His uninsured dwelling-house, which cost him $15,000, burns to the ground in 1951. The totality of the loss gives the taxpayer more of a deduction than he can use for that year. He may apply the unused residue of the loss first against 1950 income and thereafter, if this application does not exhaust it, successively against income for 1952, 1953, 1954, 1955, and 1956. I.R.C. secs. 23(s) and 122, the latter at large—a truly tough piece of elaborate detail.

With respect to medical and dental expenses (fifth box), any taxpayer who is over 65 years of age has been specially favored by an amendment of I.R.C. sec. 23(x) in 1951, which amendment is explained in the Form 1040 instructions at p. 11, under the heading *Limitations*.

With respect to miscellaneous deductions (sixth and last box) the following analysis should be observed:

(1) It has been generally assumed that such persons as teachers, working on salary, may deduct the ordinary and necessary expenses they incur for the furtherance of their employment—of course not repeating here the restricted deductions already properly claimed in calculating adjusted gross income (pp. 747 *et seq. supra*). Some of the earlier articles in this series mentioned a possible doubt as to whether employment would be considered a trade or business, within the provision of I.R.C. sec. 23(a)(1)(A) allowing as deductions: "All the ordinary and necessary expenses paid or incurred during the taxable year in carrying on any trade or business. . . ." This doubt, however, seemed not only shadowy, but inconsequential because of deductibility under I.R.C. sec. 23(a)(2): "In the case of an individual, [of] all the ordinary and necessary expenses . . . for the production or collection of income. . . ." But on June 21, 1951, the Tax Court promulgated an opinion carrying baleful connotations. The case is that of *Chester C. Hand*, 16 T.C. 1410 (1951). Mr. Hand, living in Chicago, was employed as a teacher in the public schools of that city and also by De Paul University. For 1946 Mr. Hand claimed in Schedule C deductions on account of expenses for rent paid with respect to part of his house which he used as an office, for depreciation, and for telephone, light, and other miscellaneous expense. All these expenses the Commissioner disallowed on the ground that Mr. Hand had not proved he was an independent contractor. Mr. Hand was a C.P.A., duly licensed to practice in Illinois, but during 1946 he received no accounting or other fees from outside clients.

The Tax Court, speaking through Judge Black, sustained the Commissioner. This result can be defended on grounds of little general importance. The grounds stated in the opinion, of general and disturbing import, run thus: Mr. Hand's earned income came solely from employment; working as an employee is not a trade or business under the Code; therefore an employee as such is not entitled to full deduction of ordinary and necessary expenses, but only to the limited group of vocational expenses allowed employees in the calculation of adjusted gross income under I.R.C. sec.

22(n)—expenses of travel and lodging in connection with employment, and other expenses in connection with employment for which the employer gives the employee an expense or reimbursement allowance; the expenses claimed as deductions by Mr. Hand do not fall within this very limited category; therefore they are not deductible. By extension of such reasoning, these expenses which do not satisfy I.R.C. sec. 22(n) are not allowable under the "production or collection of income" clause.

Full technical analysis of this decision would take too much space to be attempted here. A few observations only are offered. The decision was not reviewed by the Tax Court as a whole, and therefore in a sense represents the conclusions of only a single judge. Mr. Hand argued his case *pro se* and filed no brief. So Judge Black lacked the aid of legal counsel for both sides. Another single judge of the same Court, who had the full aid of counsel, in an opinion promulgated eight days later, spoke emphatically of the "profession or trade and business . . . of a teacher-writer . . ." Judge Disney in *Paul Reece Rider*, 16 T.C. 1456, 1461 (1951), this case having been mentioned above at p. 753. The effect of such a rule as laid down in the *Hand* case would be outrageous discrimination. Talking only in terms of teachers—who have always considered themselves members of an old and honorable profession, despite the fact that they are mainly on salary—it seems impossible to justify depriving them in their primary capacity of income tax deductions for the hire of assistants, dues to professional societies, subscriptions to professional publications, costs of materials, and so on, when these very expenses are allowed to members of other professions working habitually for specific clients and specific fees. Add the widespread similar injustice to other classes of salaried professional and nonprofessional folk, and a case builds itself which should deeply influence the judiciary in deciding how the Internal Revenue Code ought reasonably to be interpreted and, if necessary, Congress in amending the Code to avoid any such gross injustice.

It may further be remarked that Judge Black's reasoning collides head on with at least one passage in the 1951 instructions for use of Form 1040. Page 5 of the instructions, after the heading *Other Expenses of Employees*, says that "if you itemize your deduc-

tions on a Long-Form 1040, you can deduct the cost of tools, materials, dues to unions and professional societies, entertaining customers, and other expenses which are ordinary and necessary in connection with your employment. These items may be itemized and deducted on page 3 under the heading 'Miscellaneous.'" For 1951, at least, the assumption seems safe that Judge Black's view of the law will not prevail in practice.

(2) I.R.C. sec. 23(a)(2), partly quoted above, also allows deduction of expenses for management, conservation, or maintenance of property held for production of income. See comment in Reg. 111, sec. 29.23(a)-15. The Supreme Court has not yet had many opportunities to rule upon deductibility of these expenses, but has shown an inclination to overthrow attempts by the Treasury and the Department of Justice to split hairs unfavorably to the taxpayer. *E. g.*, *Bingham's Trust v. Commissioner*, 325 U.S. 365 (1945), allowing deduction by trustees of expenses incurred in fighting (unsuccessfully) a Treasury claim for income tax, and of other expenses incurred in connection with problems of distributing the trust fund.

(3) As already indicated, personal, living, and family expenses are not generally deductible. There is a very specialized exception for unusual medical expenses. See I.R.C. sec. 23(x), *supra* p. 758.

(4) Expenditures properly describable as capital investments are not directly or immediately deductible, being recovered only by allowances for depreciation or exhaustion spread over the useful life of the assets in which the investments are made.

General statement as to professional expenses: Reg. 111, sec. 29.23(a)-5, briefly cover professional expenses. Of those enumerated as deductible, the ones most likely to affect salaried teachers, aside from those discussed above under *Adjusted gross income*, are the cost of supplies used in the practice of their profession, dues to professional societies and subscriptions to professional journals, hire of office assistants, and current expenditures for books and professional equipment of which the useful life is not more than one year. I.T. 3448, 1941-1 C.B. 206, ends thus:

> The cost of technical books required by and purchased by teachers specifically for use in connection with their professional work is a capital expenditure, which may be extinguished through annual deductions for depreciation.

This obviously refers to books usable for more than one year.

Another special item should be mentioned. If a physician sets apart a portion of his rented house for waiting room and office, devoting that portion exclusively to that purpose, he can invoke the permission of Reg. 111, sec. 29.23(a)-5, to deduct "the rent paid for office rooms . . . ." Of course, a fair splitting of the total rent bill will be necessary. If the physician owns the house, he will seek, with good chance of success, to deduct appropriate fractions of the real estate taxes, heating costs, etc., and also to take depreciation on the office fraction of the dwelling. So, it would seem, might a teacher claim like deductions with respect to rooms devoted exclusively to the housing of his books and his professional work at home. Representatives of the Bureau, however, tend to be very inhospitable to such claims, and the teacher making them must be prepared to prove his case to the hilt with respect both to reasonable necessity of these home working facilities and the complete devotion of part of the residence to professional pursuits.

Costs of study: In many educational systems teachers are expected to work for advanced degrees or increase their capability by attending courses. In some systems such study is prerequisite to promotion or increase in pay. May a teacher deduct the expense of study undertaken to advance his education, where no requirement or increment is involved? The Bureau has consistently refused to allow such deduction, following an early ruling respecting cost of attendance at summer school, O.D. 892, 4 C.B. 209. The text of the ruling is brief, indicating no requirement that the taxpayer take summer school work. Denial of the deduction is on the ground that the expenses were "in the nature of personal expenses. . . ." There is also a Bureau ruling that the cost of professional post-graduate courses is not deductible. O.D. 984, 5 C.B. 171. *Knut F. Larson*, 15 T.C. 956 (1950), refuses to allow an engineer to deduct the cost of evening engineering courses, suggesting the double argument that these were capital expenditures and that they were personal expenses. Perhaps more emphatically, expense of preparatory work to qualify for a profession is nondeductible. *J. D. Bowles*, 1 B.T.A. 584 (1925); *T. F. Driscoll*, 4 B.T.A. 1008 (1926); cf. *G. F. Lewis*, 8 T.C. 770 (1947), affirmed 164 F. 2d 885 (2d Cir. 1947), where a father was not allowed to de-

duct the cost of educating his son to participate in the father's professional work. Reg. 111, sec. 29.23(a)-15(b), third paragraph, denies deductibility of bar examination fees and in general expenses of seeking employment; but there is some confusion here, as fees paid to secure employment were ruled deductible in O.D. 579, 3 C.B. 130.

When an educational employer, although not requiring a teacher to pursue any course of advanced study, does hold out promise of advancement in rank and compensation if, for instance, a doctorate is attained, the prospect of a favorable ruling as to deduction of the expense is still not too bright. It can be reasoned that in view of established academic practice this is an ordinary and necessary expense "for the production . . . of income." This quotation is from I.R.C. sec. 23(a)(2). But the cases in which deductions have been denied for the cost of nursemaid assistance to working wives are discouraging. *H. C. Smith*, 40 B.T.A. 1038 (1939), affirmed 113 F. 2d 114 (2d Cir. 1940), and *M. A. O'Connor*, 6 T.C. 323 (1946).

The aspect of this deduction question seems to change when an educational employer makes mandatory the pursuit of further study by its teachers. The teacher here must do the work and shoulder its cost in order to retain his position. The cost ceases to be a personal expense, under the logic applied in the case of a stunt actor who had to keep in superior physical condition to put on his act successfully, and who was allowed to deduct the conditioning costs. *Charles Hutchison*, 13 B.T.A. 1187, 1190 (1928). It has been ruled that when a teacher receives sabbatical leave with continuing compensation on condition that he must travel for educational purposes during the period of leave, his expenses incurred on such travel are deductible. I.T. 3380, 1940-1 C.B. 29. Under the Code as it now stands, the travel cost deduction, if allowable at all, may pertain to computation of adjusted gross income. See p. 747 *supra*. Consider the bearing of these matters upon the summer institutes mentioned at pp. 741 *et seq.* If participation in an institute were considered a purely voluntary educational pursuit, with the expenses personal and nondeductible, the granting of even an expense allowance might be reasoned into taxable subsidization of the participant.

As to the matters just discussed, the case of *Hill v. Commissioner*, 181 F. 2d 906 (4th Cir. 1950), is encouraging. Mrs. Hill, a Virginia public school teacher, was held entitled to deduct as an ordinary and necessary business expense for 1945 the cost of attending summer courses in Columbia University. Her teaching certificate, the highest granted by the State Board of Education, came up for renewal in 1945. Virginia law required for renewal of teaching certificates either the taking of professional or academic courses for credit or the passing of examinations on prescribed reading. The case was won on the ground that under these circumstances the summer school costs were "ordinary and necessary business expenses." Presumably the Bureau will continue to worry the fringes of this problem, despite a ruling impliedly acquiescing in the result. I.T. 4044, 1951-1 C.B. 16, asserting that the case does not justify deduction of "expenses incurred for the purpose of obtaining a teaching position, or qualifying for permanent status, a higher position, an advance in the salary schedule, or to fulfill the general cultural aspirations of the teacher. . . ." Conceivably question may be raised as to whether a teacher in a private endowed institution, where maintenance of position is not subject to the requirements of statute or governmental administrative regulation, can claim the benefit of the *Hill* decision.

Research expenses: A teacher's professional expenses for research are not personal expenses even though he receives no specific compensation for the work, but such expenses, particularly heavy costs of publication, may be regarded as capital expenditures. See G.C.M. 11654, XII-1 C.B. 250. One Tax Court case discloses an unusual situation. The taxpayer held a university post without salary, and collected and published material of scholarly value. He had no immediate prospect of financial profit but did hope to build a reputation for first-class scholarship, thus making himself eligible for highly remunerative professional appointment. Deduction of his research expense was denied as being "in essence the cost of the capital structure from which his future income is to be derived." *J. M. Osborn*, 3 T.C. 603 (1944). The opinion does not explain any accounting method by which something in the nature of a depreciation allowance might be had on account of these expenditures, and indeed suggests that they are unrecover-

able so far as income tax goes. The situation is likened to those mentioned above which involve preparation for the exercise of a profession. Does this bear upon the problem of the *Hill* case, discussed above?

Equipment: The teacher's professional equipment presents points of both ordinary and necessary current expense and capital expenditure or investment. Annual dues or fees for membership in professional organizations may be considered the price of a kind of intangible equipment. They are deductible as ordinary and necessary expenses. O.D. 450, 2 C.B. 105; I.T. 3448, 1941-1 C.B. 206. Payment for life membership in such an organization might well be treated as a capital investment involving a puzzling depreciation or exhaustion problem. Subscriptions to professional journals are typical proper deductions; so is the cost of books with a short useful life; so, too, are expenses for operation and repair of an automobile used in the practice of a teacher's profession. As to the automobile, proration or allocation of expense should be made if the car is used partly for personal, partly for professional, purposes. Professional purposes definitely do not include ordinary transit from home to place of work. See *John Griffiths*, 25 B.T.A. 1292, 1302, 1316 (1932), affirmed by 70 F. 2d 946 (7th Cir. 1934), but only on other points; and 511 CCH ¶ 144P .058 and .0585. Obviously the purchase of an automobile, to be used exclusively or partly for professional purposes, would be treated on the basis of capital expenditure; so also in the case of books, furniture, or other equipment for teaching or research, if usable for more than a year.

Professional assistance: A teacher regularly employed in a public school who paid a substitute on a per diem basis might deduct the amount thus paid. I.T. 2973, XV-1 C.B. 89. The teaching profession is not litigious, but a teacher may have to seek legal assistance in making out his income tax return. Apparently this expense is now deductible under liberal construction of the statutory clause relating to ordinary and necessary expenses for production or collection of income, or management, conservation, or maintenance of property held for the production of income. The Regulations are tantalizingly worded: "Expenses paid or incurred by an individual in the determination of liability for taxes upon his income are deductible." Reg. 111, sec. 29.23(a)-15(b), eighth para-

graph. A special Bureau ruling by letter interpreted the quoted words as permitting deduction of "fees paid by an individual taxpayer for the preparation of his individual tax return involving salary income only. . . ." 464 CCH ¶ 6215. The case for deduction is of course clearer under I.R.C. sec. 23(a)(2) where property income is involved.

Other Sources of Information

This paper, of course, is not authoritative except so far as it quotes or describes accurately the primary sources of Federal income tax law—legislation, regulations, rulings, and judicial decisions. The Treasury, it should be remarked, issues explanatory publications of a more colloquial type than the formalized regulations and rulings, which publications are authoritative in the sense that they forecast rather accurately the positions which Bureau representatives are likely to take in handling taxpayers' problems. This Bureau action is decisive, much more often than not, because appeals to the Tax Court or the other Federal courts from administrative determinations are and ought to be rare. The best known of the publications just mentioned is the instruction pamphlet distributed with Form 1040. More detailed but less widely distributed is the booklet "Your Federal Income Tax" published of late in annual editions by the Government. This booklet is for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C., at the nominal price of 25 cents per copy and can sometimes be obtained at the offices of Collectors of Internal Revenue.

Commercial publishers also issue valuable compilations and commentaries. Passing by the large, costly loose-leaf services of the Commerce Clearing House, Inc., and Prentice-Hall, both excellent publishers, the reader may find it worth while to consider the less expensive books listed below, their prices accompanied by percentage figures to show educational discounts allowable if orders are billed to and paid by school, college, or university bookstores.

Commerce Clearing House, Inc., issues the following. "Federal Taxation—Current Law and Practice": One volume, loose-leaf ring binder; school list price $6.25 (20%), including current reports on new developments for one year. "1952 U. S. Master

Tax Guide": A comprehensive explanatory text reflecting the Code as amended by the Revenue Act of 1951, the regulations and court decisions up to date—on the income tax, excess profits tax, and other federal taxes. 416 pages, heavy paper cover, size 6" x 9". School price \$3 (33 1/3%). "Internal Revenue Code" as amended to January 7, 1952: The full official texts of the income, estate, gift, excess profits, income tax withholding, employment and other principal provisions. 627 pages, heavy paper cover, size 6" x 9". School price \$3.50 (33 1/3%). "Income Tax Regulations 111" as amended to August 1, 1951: The full official texts with amendments through T.D. 5848. 600 pages, heavy paper cover, size 6" x 9". School price \$3 (33 1/3%).

Prentice-Hall publishes a booklet explaining each major Revenue Act. The most recent is "The Revenue Act of 1951—with Explanation" at \$1.50 (20%). A special edition, including sections of the Internal Revenue Code as amended by the 1951 Revenue Act, is \$2.50 (20%). Available to tax classes at no cost are the 70-page "Federal Tax Practice" and the 64-page "Research in Federal Taxation." The same publisher also issues an 800-page "Federal Tax Handbook" at \$4.50 (20%); and a 600-page "Treasury Department Income Tax Regulations" at \$4 (20%). Also, from the long list of loose-leaf Services: "Internal Revenue Code," annual subscription \$18 (20%); "Federal Regulations on Income and Excess Profits Taxes," annual subscription \$12.50 (20%); "Code and Regulations on Income and Excess Profits Taxes," annual subscription \$24 (20%); and "Students Tax Law Service," annual subscription \$35 (20%).

Caveat

The present paper is not published for the purpose of rendering legal, accounting, or other professional service. If any reader requires legal advice or other expert assistance in respect of specific tax matters, the services of a competent professional person, to whom the exact facts are presented, should be sought.

INSTRUCTIONAL SALARIES IN 40 SELECTED COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES FOR THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1951–52

A Study by the Committee on the Economic Status of the Profession of the American Association of University Professors

This is the third in the series of studies of instructional salaries in selected colleges and universities authorized by the Council of the American Association of University Professors in March, 1948, and conducted by the Association's Committee on the Economic Status of the Profession. The two previous studies were for the academic years 1948–49 and 1949–50.[1]

In March, 1950, the Council of the Association approved the proposal of the Committee to continue these studies on a biennial basis. During the interim academic year 1950–51, the Committee conducted two supplementary studies, one entitled "Income and Expenditures in 88 Colleges and Universities in the Academic Years 1938–39 and 1948–49," the other entitled "Chapters and the Economic Status of the Profession."[2]

It should be noted that this study, like the two preceding studies in this series, is based on the principle of purposive rather than random sampling. The institutions invited to participate in these studies were chosen with consideration for regional representation from those which the Committee had reason to believe followed good academic practice in reference to instructional salaries and salary schedules. The findings in this study, like those in the two previous studies, cannot, therefore, be assumed to be representative of the over-all salary situation in American colleges and universities. Even in this selected group, there is wide diversity in salary levels and in the adjustments made to

[1] *Bulletin*, American Association of University Professors, Vol. 34, No. 4, Winter, 1948, pp. 778–797; and Vol. 35, No. 4, Winter, 1949, pp. 719–747.

[2] *Bulletin*, American Association of University Professors, Vol. 37, No. 1, Spring, 1951, pp. 111–142; No. 2, Summer, 1951, pp. 351–364.

changing conditions. Institutions apply available funds in different ways, and in any group of institutions there are measurable variations in each of the elements of good salary practice.

An important element in the value of these studies is that current information is made available to the profession in time to be used in the next year's budget plans and recommendations. To accomplish this result the data must be collected shortly after the opening of the fall term. This means that the questionnaire for the study reaches the administrations of the institutions concerned at a very busy time. Despite this fact, the response to the Committee's questionnaire in this and in the previous studies has been gratifyingly prompt. In this study the same 41 institutions which were included in the study for the academic year 1949–50 were invited to participate, and all but one responded in time for inclusion.[1] The administration of the institution which did not supply data for this study explained that the business officers of the institution were under unusual pressure, and suggested that since there had been little salary change in the interval, the data supplied for the academic year 1949–50 be used, or that the institution be omitted from the study. The Committee considered the second alternative the more appropriate course to follow.

This continuity of response permits exact comparison of similar data for each year in the series, and thus provides a fairly precise measurement of the changes in the institutions concerned since 1948–49. In a few cases of change in the basis of reporting (*e. g.*, the number of component schools included), suitable adjustments of the earlier figures have been possible. Such adjustments account for the differences which will be noted between the salary values for

[1] The cooperating institutions are: Amherst College, Bowdoin College, Brown University, Bryn Mawr College, California Institute of Technology, University of California, Carleton College, Case Institute of Technology, Columbia University, Cornell University (Endowed Colleges), Dartmouth College, Duke University, Emory University, Harvard University (Arts and Sciences), Haverford College, University of Illinois, Johns Hopkins University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, University of Michigan, Mills College, University of Minnesota, Northwestern University, Oberlin College, Pomona College, Princeton University, Reed College, Rice Institute, University of Rochester, Stanford University, Swarthmore College, Vanderbilt University, Vassar College, Wabash College, Washington University, University of Washington, Wellesley College, Wesleyan University, Williams College, University of Wisconsin, Yale University (Arts and Sciences).

the past as they appear in this study and as they appear in the previous studies. There are also some differences with regard to values derived from enrollment figures and instructional expenditures for the academic year 1949–50, which were estimates in the previous study, and are now final.

In a study seeking current data, the questionnaire must be limited to basic matters. The salary schedules in the questionnaire used in this study are, in summary, as follows:

1. Formal salary scales now in effect for each rank of full-time faculty member, distinguishing between 9–10 and 11–12 month appointments.

2. Numbers of full-time students and equivalents enrolled in October of 1949, 1950, and 1951, and the total amounts spent in the academic years 1949–50 and 1950–51, and expected to be spent in the current academic year 1951–52, on instructional salaries, including the salaries of part-time instructors and assistants, and payments to pension and insurance funds, but excluding, as in all schedules, Medical, Dental, Summer School, and Extension salaries and, as far as possible, salaries or the parts of salaries which are for administrative or similar services and for research projects.

3. Either the distribution, by interval table arranged in $250 classes, of all salaries actually paid in each rank, distinguishing 9–10 and 11–12 month appointments and stating the precise amounts for the minimum and maximum paid in each rank; or, when the values have been computed from payroll readings, the numbers in each rank, with the minimum, maximum, mean, and median salaries, again distinguishing 9–10 and 11–12 month appointments.

II

Student enrollments declined 18.1 per cent in this selected group of institutions between the academic years 1949–50 and 1951–52. However, in the six state universities, which reached their postwar peak in the year 1949–50, the decline in the divisions covered in this survey was 22.2 per cent. In the privately controlled institutions, which as a group passed their postwar high point earlier, the average decline was 12.3 per cent between these two years. Measured from 1947-48, the decline was 18.7 per cent. The reductions in the number of students were fairly uniform among the six state universities, but among the privately controlled

institutions there was a good deal of variation. In several of the latter the reduction was less than 5 per cent in the last two years, but in one it ran to 30 per cent and in another to 26 per cent. The number of students in the group of three women's colleges rose about 2 per cent. In general, enrollments appear to be appreciably above prewar levels and seem destined to remain so. The over-all figures for the five years of our records on this subject are as follows:

TABLE 1—*Enrollments, Fall Term, 1947–48 to 1951–52*

6 State Universities	141,521	142,607	143,789	128,145	111,834
34 Privately Controlled Institutions	109,382	109,261	101,434	95,098	88,920
Totals	250,903	251,868	245,223	223,243	200,754

The number of persons on the teaching staffs of these institutions also declined in the past two years. Happily, however, the reductions in teaching staff were less severe than reductions in student registration, with the result that the student-faculty ratio, which was unduly high when the flood of students was at its crest, has been corrected to more moderate and desirable over-all proportions. There is, of course, a good deal of variety of experience in this matter also, as will be indicated in later tabulations and in the statistical tables in the Appendix.

One trend may be particularly significant. While the total number of teachers has fallen, the numbers of professors and of associate professors have increased since 1948–49. Institutions have made some headway in recruiting and promoting permanent staff members in keeping with the larger student bodies which, in varying proportions, are likely to remain a feature of the postwar period. But there is a darker side to the picture. The laying off of instructors, or failure to replace them, which appears to have been rather widely spread, has already discouraged prospective teachers in many fields. These persons will have little difficulty in finding other employment, but will they return to teaching when needed?

The numbers of teachers in each rank are given by classified groups later in this report, but it may be of some interest to have the totals here. They are as follows:

Table II—*Numbers and Percentages of Faculty in Each Rank*

	1948-49		1949-50		1951-52	
	Number	% of Faculty	Number	% of Faculty	Number	% of Faculty
Professors	3,740	28.8	3,891	28.6	3,997	32.0
Associate Professors	2,484	19.1	2,728	20.1	2,692	21.6
Assistant Professors	3,258	25.1	3,511	25.8	3,209	25.7
Instructors	3,512	27.0	3,460	25.5	2,577	20.7
Totals	12,994	100.0	13,590	100.0	12,475	100.0

In former reports, we drew attention to the rather close correlation which existed between the size of institutions and the average number of students for each full-time faculty member, to the disadvantage of the larger institutions. Marked improvements in student-faculty ratios have been made in virtually all of the institutions included in this study, but most notably in the larger ones. Although the correlation above mentioned is still visible, it is a little less marked. The lower student-faculty ratios are still found in the smaller undergraduate colleges, where full-time staffs perform all the teaching functions. Today none of the fourteen small colleges included here average as many as fifteen students per instructor, and ten of them average less than twelve. Four run less than ten, the proportion recommended for the graduate school level. It is a disturbing circumstance in a few of these cases, however, that salaries are too low to permit long-term maintenance of good professional standards. A very favorable student-faculty ratio is one of the contributions of the small college to higher education in America, but it should not be made a fetish: it should not be achieved by sacrificing the economic status of the teaching staff, or instructional quality will be lost in the long run. If other means for improving faculty salaries cannot be found, these institutions may achieve better long-term educational results by limiting replacements when vacancies occur, even though this would require the restriction of course offerings. The larger institutions, several of which appeared in 1948–49 to have expanded enrollment beyond reasonable relationship to the size of the teaching staffs, have since then contracted the former and expanded the latter. Moreover,

these larger institutions generally make use of part-time instructors and assistants. If we could, in this study, equate these with full-time staff members in some satisfactory way, the differences shown below would undoubtedly be narrower. In the following table, the size classifications are on the basis of 1951–52 enrollments: small, up to 1200 students; medium sized, 1200 to 4000; and large, 4000 up.

TABLE III—*Student-Faculty Ratios, 1948–49 and 1951–52*

	Number of Institutions	*Average Number of Full-Time Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member* Up to 10	10–15	15–20	20–25	Over 25
		1948–49				
Small	14	..	11	3	..	..
Medium Sized	11	1	6	3	1	..
Large	15	..	1	5	7	2
		1951–52				
Small	14	4	10	..	..	..
Medium Sized	11	1	7	3	..	..
Large	15	1	4	8	2	..

III

In June, 1946, before the last of the wartime price controls was discarded, the Consumers' Price Index stood at 133.3 (1935–39 = 100).[1] By June, 1948, when this Committee was organized and, in a position to launch its first study, the price index had risen another 29 per cent, to 171.7. The expressed hope in which the controls were dropped, that a slight rise in prices would evoke increased production which would quickly meet demands and bring lower prices, had, as the Council of the Association had foreseen,[2] proved illusory. Prices did ease off slightly in 1949. By June the index number stood at 169.6. Then came the rearmament program, the full effect of which has not yet been felt, and then the Korean war, accompanied by a rush of consumer buying and industrial stockpiling. Under these pressures and

[1] Consumers' Price Index numbers are taken from the *Monthly Labor Review*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor.

[2] Resolution of the Council Meeting of June, 1946.

without a system of controls or of rationing adequate to cope with the magnitude of the enterprise to which the nation was committed, prices soon broke through the earlier highs. The escalator clauses in labor contracts brought automatic wage increases and further price rises. By June, 1951, the index number reached 185.5 (old series; 185.2 in the new series) and by October, 1951, when the data for this study were being collected, the number was at 188.5 (old series; 187.8 in the new series). Thus a postwar rise of over 41 per cent has been piled on the more gradual wartime increase of 33 per cent, and there is no clear sign that the end is yet in sight.[1]

Colleges and universities and their faculties and staffs, along with several other classes of the population, have been placed in a difficult position by these events. Prices of food, clothing, and other materials are geared to inflationary pressures. Institutional income, however, is determined by factors which are much less flexible—the rate of interest, the vote of the legislator, the purse of the student. Of these, the interest rate is the most rigid, and the endowed colleges are consequently most hard pressed. They can increase tuition fees. This they have done, and they are doing so again. They can take in more students to increase the volume of tuition income, but to do this to any large extent means incurring expensive facility problems. It also means increasing the staff without the subsidy of endowment income, or decreasing the proportions of faculty to students when higher tuition rates should make it particularly important to maintain quality in order to compete with publicly supported institutions, with their lower tuition charges. The endowed colleges and universities which have limited their enrollment and building programs have, with their faculties, fared better in these years, by and large, than their more expansive neighbors. Among the publicly supported institutions of higher education, income has risen more readily than in the endowed colleges. Public grants have, generally, maintained a better proportion to student registration and to the national income, and tuition fees, initially lower, have been raised without undue hardship to students—without, indeed,

[1] The index numbers announced in December, for November 15, 1951, are 189.3 in the old series and 188.6 in the new.

notably reducing the number or increasing the average age of motor cars in the student parking spaces. But in most institutions, both public and private, expenses for administration and for the maintenance of grounds and buildings have absorbed a larger part of the increase in revenue than has been allotted to instructional salaries.[1] If it had been possible to maintain a more even balance in the use of what new funds were available, more could have been done in most colleges and universities through the country to improve faculty salaries. Even so, the improvements would have fallen a good deal short of matching the rise in living costs.

IV

In measuring changes in instructional salaries, we have, in these studies, relied heavily on measures of central tendency—that is to say, on means and medians rather than on minimum or maximum values, which are often used. The assumption that changes in minima are closely correlated with other characteristics of salary distribution is not supported by our data, as the following table will indicate:

TABLE IV—*Comparison of Minimum and Mean Salaries in Five Large State Universities, 1946–47 and 1951–52**

	Minimum Salaries		*Increase,*	*Mean Salaries*		*Increase,*
	1946–47	*1951–52*	*%*	*1946–47*	*1951–52*	*%*
Professors	$4988	$6092	22.1	$6189	$8209	32.6
Associate Professors	4187	5178	23.7	4664	6094	30.7
Assistant Professors	3387	4020	18.7	3823	4902	28.2
Instructors	2647	3036	14.7	2961	3987	34.7

* Data for 1946–47 are taken from a report prepared by Professor W. E. Martin for the DePauw University Chapter of the Association.

[1] See "Income and Expenditure in 88 Colleges and Universities in the Academic Years 1938–39 and 1948–49," *Bulletin,* Vol. 37, No. 1, Spring, 1951, pp. 111–142; see also "The Impact of Inflation upon Higher Education," an interim statement published in 1951 by the Commission on Financing Higher Education. Copies of the latter may be secured by writing to the Commission at 1860 Broadway, New York 23, N. Y.

Maxima are similarly unreliable for purposes of generalization concerning trends. The maximum may be set by a single appointment at the upper limit of the range, and may often be so far from the next highest value or group of values as to hold but little analytical significance. Minimum and maximum values, taken together, will, to be sure, give some indication of the overall range of salaries within each rank, but they yield no information on the use made of the range, and thus no measure of the extent to which reward is given for ability and service in the years after appointment. In the case of professors, who may spend twenty or thirty years in the rank, it is particularly desirable to know how the scale is used. Averages, whether means or medians, give a clue to the distribution of salaries within the range and are, therefore, a somewhat better index in these matters. Hence our emphasis is placed on the analysis of averages, using both weighted and unweighted types.

Beginning with the academic year 1948–49, the Committee has accumulated fairly precise information on what has occurred in salary matters in the 40 institutions covered in this report. Accordingly, we have put together in one table data on such relevant matters as the weighted student-faculty ratio in each of the three years, the numbers of faculty in each rank, and the weighted mean salaries, classifying the institutions, as in the statistical tables in the Appendix, by region, size, and type. These weighted means will show the changes in each group of institutions as a whole, but they are only averages and therefore conceal institutional variations. Later, we shall present in graphic form the median values for the larger groups of privately controlled institutions for 1948–49 and 1951–52, showing them for each rank in each institution. These will indicate the variety of experience, as do also the ample data given in the statistical tables in the Appendix to this and to earlier reports. For the state universities, we are able to show graphically the cumulative salary distribution in each rank for the group as a whole for 1949–50 and 1951–52.

Some caution may be called for in interpreting these group values. As pointed out above, institutional variations are merged and concealed. In the case of the institutes of technology, where for

two ranks the averages declined and for another showed a very small increase over the three years, there are special circumstances, which may be operative to some extent in other types of institution as well. Here, the factor which chiefly affects the weighted means is that considerable numbers of the staff in the upper salary brackets in one very large institution have gone into special research projects and have been replaced in teaching functions by new appointees at the lower rates in the various ranks. These weighted means may, therefore, understate the improvement which came to those who remained in each rank for the three years. Further, the increase in numbers which occurred in the upper ranks in this and other groups may also, to the extent that appointments were made at the beginning rates, have a depressing effect on the means. However, as will be seen, the increases in numbers are relatively small in most of the groups, and we cannot assume that new appointments were preponderantly made at the beginning rates for the rank in these years of short supply in teaching staffs. All in all, it seems likely that these various factors do not, in any group other than technology, where the turnover was particularly large, influence the results more than an allowance for improvement in *quality*, as distinct from *price* of services, to use Professor Sumner Slichter's appropriate distinction,[1] would require.

There are many interesting and significant trends to be observed in these data both in the table as a whole and in the groups. Among the points of general interest is the clear fact that these three years have brought a good deal of adjustment in salaries. In all groups there has been upward movement, and for several groups and ranks, this movement has been considerable. In five out of the nine groups the percentage increases in the weighted mean salaries in each of the three upper ranks have equalled or exceeded 9 per cent, approximately equivalent to the rise in living costs as measured by the Consumers' Price Index from 1948 (annual average) to October, 1951. In eight of the groups the percentage increases for instructors equalled, and in the majority of these groups substantially exceeded, the rise in prices. The base salaries on which the percentage increases are calculated are,

[1] *Bulletin*, American Association of University Professors, Vol. 32, No. 4, Winter, 1946, p. 721.

TABLE V—*Student-Faculty Ratios and Average Salaries in 1948–49, 1949–50, and 1951–52. By Region, Size, or Type of Institution*

	Student-Faculty Ratio*	Weighted Mean Salaries by Rank							
		Professors		Assoc. Professors		Asst. Professors		Instructors	
		No.	Mean	No.	Mean	No.	Mean	No.	Mean
Privately Controlled Colleges and Universities (Salary data for 9–10 month basis only)									
New England and Middle Atlantic									
Small (6)									
1948–49	12.4	167	$6540	74	$5058	134	$4135	94	$3074
1949–50	11.8	172	6762	74	5180	144	4165	90	3261
1951–52	10.6	179	7664	86	5836	114	4735	94	3703
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	17.2	...	15.4	...	14.5	...	20.5
Medium (5)									
1948–49	14.9	329	$7075	196	$5360	268	$4205	232	$3231
1949–50	14.0	338	7113	206	5425	271	4254	223	3301
1951–52	12.7	362	7438	197	5756	234	4488	179	3487
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	5.1	...	7.4	...	6.7	...	7.9
Large (4)									
1948–49	20.9	556	$9198	314	$6064	319	$4528	383	$3247
1949–50	18.4	574	9215	325	6074	308	4549	332	3341
1951–52	16.2	624	9897	332	6554	298	4827	308	3601
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	7.6	...	8.1	...	6.6	...	10.9
Women's (3)									
1948–49	10.3	114	$5953	90	$4618	67	$3703	98	$2926
1949–50	10.4	109	6046	89	4601	75	3736	94	2966
1951–52	10.7	109	6511	84	5064	76	4180	90	3315
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	9.4	...	9.7	...	12.9	...	13.3
North Central and Pacific									
Small (5)									
1948–49	14.2	92	$5303	69	$4188	88	$3492	54	$2876
1949–50	13.5	92	5348	75	4251	82	3642	62	3044
1951–52	12.1	89	5901	73	4663	79	3913	51	3290
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	11.3	...	11.3	...	12.1	...	14.4
Medium and Large (4)									
1948–49	21.1	374	$7079	275	$5334	307	$4272	287	$3252
1949–50	19.7	383	7270	297	5405	307	4388	269	3403
1951–52	17.6	406	7575	295	5655	292	4565	215	3763
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	7.0	...	6.0	...	6.9	...	15.7

TABLE V (continued)

	Student-Faculty Ratio*	Weighted Mean Salaries by Rank: Professors No.	Professors Mean	Assoc. Professors No.	Assoc. Professors Mean	Asst. Professors No.	Asst. Professors Mean	Instructors No.	Instructors Mean
South									
Medium and Large (4)									
1948–49	17.8	201	$6011	141	$4761	168	$4022	151	$3125
1949–50	16.7	207	6272	143	4911	186	4126	147	3244
1951–52	14.3	228	6607	152	5175	189	4372	107	3511
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	9.9	...	8.7	...	8.7	...	12.4
Institutes of Technology (3) (Salary data for instructors 10 or 10½ month basis; others 10½ or 11–12 month basis)									
1948–49	12.3	177	$9195	152	$6809	144	$5445	170	$3634
1949–50	12.0	178	9253	155	6784	145	5372	162	3733
1951–52	10.1	199	9310	166	6733	169	5190	123	3985
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	1.3	...	(−1.1)†	...	(−4.7)†	...	9.7
Publicly Supported Universities (Salary data for 9–10 month basis only)									
North Central and Pacific									
State Universities (6)									
1948–49	23.2	1224	$7146	802	$5346	1237	$4352	1613	$3283
1949–50	21.5	1385	7575	949	5612	1420	4529	1570	3538
1951–52	17.8	1388	8266	978	6145	1308	4947	1027	3969
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	15.7	...	15.0	...	13.7	...	20.9
Publicly Supported Universities (Salary data for 11–12 month basis only)									
North Central and Pacific									
State Universities (5)									
1948–49	See	358	$7758	266	$6055	431	$4847	268	$3774
1949–50	above	401	8341	312	6545	467	5244	327	4214
1951–52		385	9385	302	7474	423	5838	356	4773
Increase in Mean Salary, 1948–49 to 1951–52, %	...	...	21.0	...	23.4	...	20.4	...	26.5

* Based on number of full-time students and full-time equivalents, and number of full-time faculty members whether on 9–10 or 11–12 month basis.

† Salaries have not been reduced as these figures may suggest. See text for explanation.

of course, disparate, and this fact needs to be taken into account. In some groups which show good rates of increase, salaries in the upper ranks are still too low to maintain professional standards. These improvements in the past three years are encouraging,

nonetheless, though they must, of course, be viewed in relation to the deficiencies resulting from the whole course of the inflation, and in relation to the other professions with which college teaching must compete for recruits. There is still much to be done in salary matters, even in these selected institutions.

V

The changes which have occurred since 1948–49 with respect to median salaries are shown for the larger groups of privately controlled institutions in the following bar charts, numbered I through VI. Salary changes in the state universities will be analyzed in another way later. These charts reveal the variations from institution to institution which are concealed in our averages. The numbers below the base line are the code numbers of the institutions included and are assigned in consecutive order on the basis of the median salaries of professors in the current year, 1951–52. It will be noticed that some institutions which today stand at the top of the group with respect to professors' salaries did not hold that position in 1948–49. Some institutions have improved their salaries more than others and have raised their standing in the group. It will be noticed also that, in many cases, the institution standing first with respect to the median salary for professors stands lower, or even last, with respect to the median salaries in other ranks.

Each of the six state universities invited to participate in this study provided the Committee with complete salary distributions in class intervals of $250 through most of the salary range. Thus we know precisely how many professors in each of these universities receive salaries from $7500 to $7749, for example. This detailed information throws more light on the distribution of salaries than is possible when institutions report merely the minimum, maximum, mean, and median salaries paid. To show this distribution graphically, we have combined these data into a single distribution, as if the six institutions were combined into one, and we present the results, as we did for the same institutions in our report for 1949–50, in "more than" and "less than" cumulation curves. Charts VII through X (pp.784–785) show these combined

MEDIAN SALARIES IN 1948–49 AND 1951–52
(9–10 month basis only)

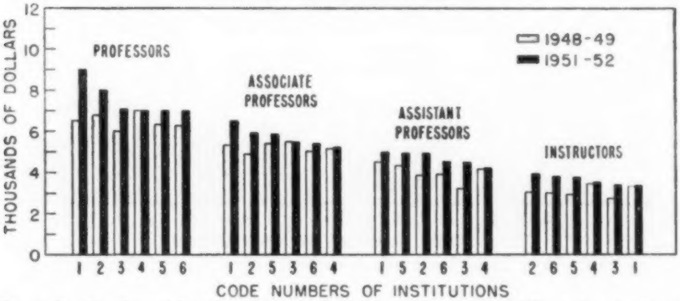


Chart I—Six Small Institutions in New England and Middle Atlantic States

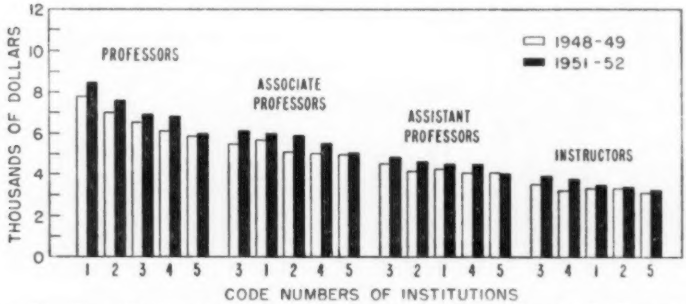


Chart II—Five Medium Sized Institutions in New England and Middle Atlantic States

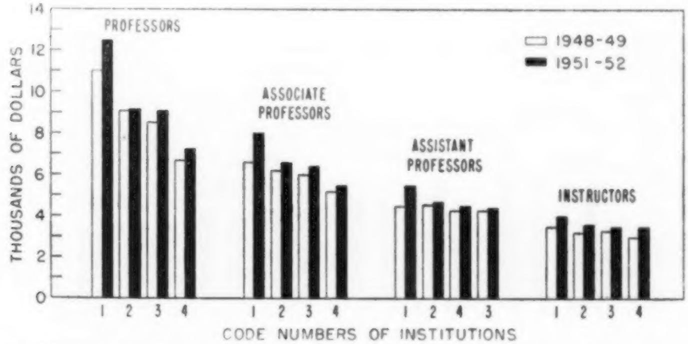


Chart III—Four Large Institutions in New England and Middle Atlantic States

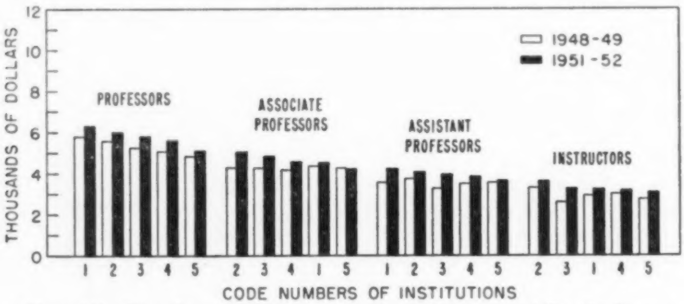


Chart IV—Five Small Institutions in North Central and Pacific States

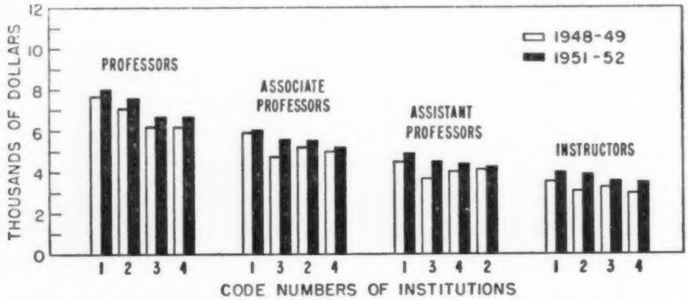


Chart V—Four Medium Sized and Large Institutions in North Central and Pacific States

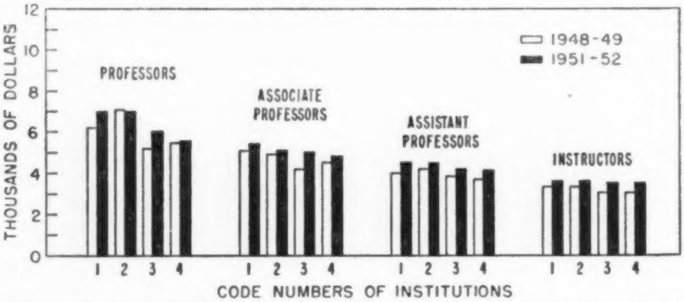


Chart VI—Four Medium Sized and Large Institutions in Southern States

salary schedules for each of the four ranks for 1951–52. The method of interpreting these diagrams was explained in the 1949–50 report, and we paraphrase the relevant section:

> If the question is, "What percentage of the professors in these six institutions received $8000 or more a year?" the answer will be found in Chart VII. Locate the figure $8000 on the base line on this chart and move vertically upward from this value to the point at which the "more than cumulation" curve is intersected, then move horizontally to the scale on the left margin of the chart, where the percentage of the staff receiving more than $8000 will be found. This figure is approximately 53 per cent. If the question is, "What percentage of the professors in these six institutions received less than $8000?" pass the vertical line upward from $8000 on the base line until it intersects the "less than cumulation" curve and then move horizontally to the scale on the left margin of the chart, where it will be found that approximately 47 per cent receive less than $8000 a year. The percentage receiving more or less than any value within the range of values on the base of the chart can be determined in this way for any of the four ranks.
>
> If the concern of the reader is with the median, this will be found at the point on the chart at which the "more than" and "less than" cumulative curves intersect. By dropping directly from this point of intersection of the two curves to the base of the chart the median value will be found. In Chart VII for Professors, this is $8070. This means that 50 per cent of the professors on the 9–10 month basis in these state universities as a group received more and 50 per cent received less than this median value. The twenty-fifth and seventy-fifth percentiles are indicated also on these charts.

These cumulative frequency distributions yield a large amount of information. Any group, having computed its median salary, may check its relative position from these charts; and, indeed, any individual may determine his relative position by referring to these curves. Administrative officers and local Chapters of the Association may prepare similar cumulative distributions for their own institutions and make useful comparisons over the entire range of the salary scale.

Comparison of these combined distributions with those for 1949–50 reveals some interesting and significant changes. Charts XI to XIV below show these on a "more than" basis for each rank. Consider, for example, Chart XI. Where, in 1949–50, 50 per cent of the combined staff of full professors received more than

SALARIES IN SIX LARGE STATE UNIVERSITIES, 1951–52
(9–10 month basis only)

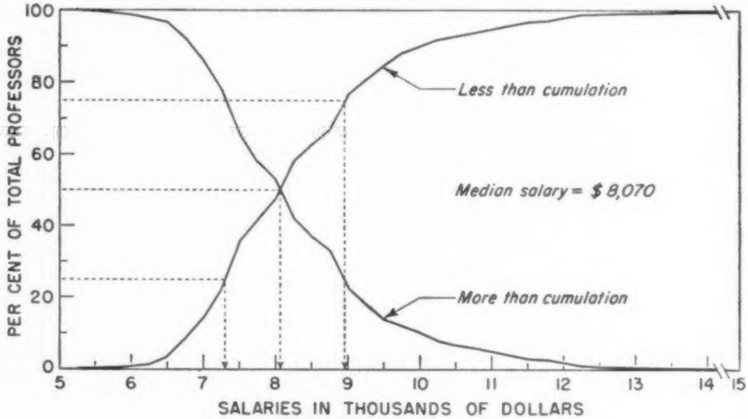


Chart VII—1388 Professors

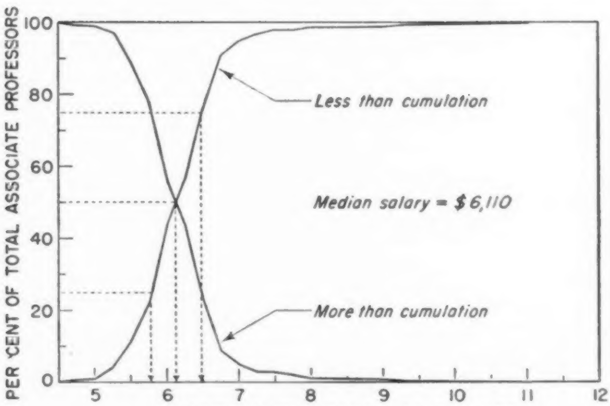


Chart VIII—978 Associate Professors

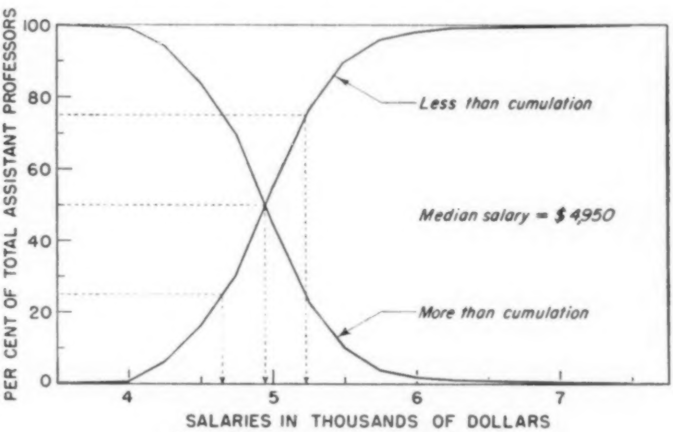


Chart IX—1308 Assistant Professors

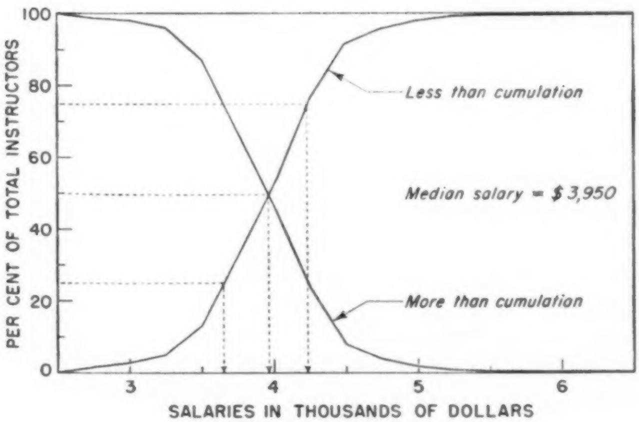


Chart X—1027 Instructors

$7290, in 1951–52 this median value is $8070. Or raise a perpendicular from the 1949–50 median of $7290 to the 1951–52 curve and it will be found that 76 per cent of the professors now receive more than the median salary of 1949–50. This certainly represents substantial improvement during the past biennium, an improvement that has been shared generally within the rank. As with the preceding cumulative charts, the percentage of the members in each rank receiving more than any salary within the range can be read directly from these charts for either year, and similarly constructed salary distributions for any institution can be checked with these curves.

A comparison of the increases shown in these combined salary schedules for each of the four ranks is also interesting and significant. In the table below are shown both the absolute amounts of the increases in median salaries for the four ranks and the percentage rates of change.

TABLE VI—*Weighted Median Salaries in Six State Universities in 1949–50 and 1951–52* (9–10 month basis only)

	1949–50	*1951–52*	*Increase* *Amount*	*Increase* *Per Cent*
Professors	$7290	$8070	$780	10.7
Associate Professors	5560	6110	550	9.9
Assistant Professors	4530	4950	420	9.2
Instructors	3600	3950	350	9.8

It will be noticed that, although the amount of the typical increase is more than twice as much for professors as for instructors, the percentages for the various ranks are quite uniform. Judged by the medians alone, it would seem that the era of disproportionately large increases for instructors, noted in our previous reports, is coming to an end, in these institutions at least. However, the average salaries for these combined staffs, already shown in Table V, tell a somewhat different story, and they are worth presenting again in a form to compare with the weighted medians above.

TABLE VII—*Weighted Mean Salaries in Six State Universities in 1949–50 and 1951–52* (9–10 month basis only)

	1949–50	*1951–52*	Increase *Amount*	*Per Cent*
Professors	$7575	$8266	$691	9.1
Associate Professors	5612	6145	533	9.5
Assistant Professors	4529	4947	418	9.2
Instructors	3538	3969	431	12.2

The increase in the mean salary for professors was less than the increase in the median salary. Where, in 1949–50, the mean was $285 higher than the median, indicating that some high salaries pulled the average up, in 1951–52 the median had risen more rapidly and the difference had narrowed to $196. Increases in means and medians for associate and assistant professors corresponded closely. For instructors, however, the mean rose more rapidly than the median. In 1949–50 there was a slight preponderance of appointments below the mean, and now the balance is gently the other way. The rate of increase in the mean for instructors is distinctly larger than for the other ranks for these two years, but this is not surprising in view of the large reduction in the number of instructors (see Table V), presumably made mainly from among the younger men at the lower salaries.

VI

In commenting earlier in this report on the salary improvements achieved in the last three years, reference was made to the deficiencies in salary adjustment during the decade as a whole. The Committee does not have sufficient data with which to measure systematically the salary adjustments that have been made in this selected group of institutions through the whole course of this prolonged inflation period. Our own records begin with the academic year 1948–49. There can be little doubt, however, that salary adjustment has lagged rather far behind the rise in living costs since 1940. Chiefly because of the gradualness of the rise in prices in the war years, and the general expectation that a recession would follow the conclusion of the war effort, little atten-

tion was given to the problem by administrators generally, or by faculties themselves, prior to 1946, except with respect to instructors, whose salaries had to be improved in order to secure replacements for the staff members who went into war service. As a result, the profession had already received a severe economic setback before the more rapid price rise after 1946 made the situation almost desperate, and shattered the hope that a price recession would soon set things to rights. Large though the subsequent adjustments have been, it seems quite unlikely that they have yet been sufficient in most institutions to recover the ground lost during the first years of the past decade.

This impression is strongly confirmed by figures recently published by the Commission on Financing Higher Education. In the interim report cited above, the Commission estimated that average salaries of faculty members in colleges and universities generally (that is, taking all ranks together and including publicly and privately supported institutions) have risen only 40 to 50 per cent since 1940. On this basis, real income for the profession as a whole is only about 75 to 80 per cent of the prewar level. As the range perhaps suggests, this is a general average, and individual institutions may fall outside these limits. We have data on only three privately controlled institutions, and all three are below the range cited. One of these, a large institution, hitherto considered rather adequately endowed, shows average salaries for all ranks increasing only 32 per cent since 1940. Here real income is only about 71 per cent of prewar level. Moreover, the upper ranks have fared less well in many institutions than these over-all averages suggest. Instructors' salaries, which, as Table V shows, have generally risen by a larger percentage since 1948–49 than have the salaries in the upper ranks, also increased more before that year, and improve the over-all average. In two of our selected institutions, for example, both privately controlled, one medium in size, the other small, the average salaries of professors have risen only 20.5 and 21.5 per cent, respectively, since 1940; those of associate professors have risen 27.4 and 24.2 per cent; of assistant professors, 38.1 and 33.9 per cent; and of instructors, 61.4 and 64.1 per cent. On an

average of these two institutions, real income for professors is only about 65 per cent of the prewar level, while that of instructors is about 86 per cent. The proportions, then, vary from rank to rank as well as from institution to institution. But there can be no doubt that the profession as a whole has suffered an absolute setback in economic status.

What makes the matter very serious with respect to recruitment of staff and maintenance of educational standards is that there has also been a decline relative to other learned professions. The Commission on Financing Higher Education states—

> Faculty salaries have not increased as rapidly as the salaries of other professions requiring as much educational preparation. The average dollar incomes of doctors and dentists, for example, have more than doubled since 1939, and those of lawyers have increased 85 per cent. The college teacher, whose services are essential to the preparation of professional practitioners, has lost ground to these other professions. In 1948 the average income of doctors was about two and one-half times and that of lawyers was about two times the average income of college teachers. In the early 1940's the income of the average dentist was about 30 per cent higher than that of the average college teacher; by 1948 it was over 70 per cent higher.
>
> Today government and industry offer more money and better future prospects to highly trained young people than does a college or university. In the face of inflationary price increases, colleges and universities will lose essential members of their faculties. Without salary increases the quality of educational activity must inevitably be lowered.

VII

In the earlier studies in this series, the Committee laid some stress on the amount spent per student on instructional salaries. This is a comprehensive measure which takes into account and sums up the interaction of such factors as the salary scale, the proportions of the faculty in the various ranks, the student-faculty ratio, and the part-time instruction and assistance, as well as the amounts contributed by the institution to pension and insurance funds.

The improvements which have been made in these ratios since 1947–48 are considerable. They would, indeed, be impressive if that year had been a normal one and if money values had remained stable since then. But at that time enrollments were swollen, teaching staffs short-handed, and salaries lagged behind the rise in the cost of living. In terms of instructional salaries per student, it was, for many institutions, one of the poorest years since the early twenties. One university, for example, whose enrollment was 20 per cent larger than today and whose faculty was 15 per cent smaller, spent only $216 per student on all instructional salaries. Today, with more reasonable proportions of students to faculty, with somewhat larger proportions of the latter in the upper ranks, and with higher salaries, the values are much improved. In 1947–48, the mean (each institution given equal weight regardless of size), omitting one case where more expense

TABLE VIII—*Instructional Salaries per Student in 40 Institutions*

	$200–299		$300–399		$400–499		$500–599		$600 and over	
	1947–48	1951–52	1947–48	1951–52	1947–48	1951–52	1947–48	1951–52	1947–48	1951–52
Privately Controlled:										
New England	..	..	2	1	6	2	2	3	..	4
Middle Atlantic	..	..	1	..	5	1	3	4	..	4
North Central	1	..	3	2	2	2	..	1	..	1
South	3	..	1	2	..	2	..	..	..	..
Pacific	..	..	4	1	..	3	..	..	1	1
State Universities	6	..	..	3	..	2	..	1	..	..
Totals	10	0	11	9	13	12	5	9	1	10
By Size:										
Small	1	..	5	2	5	4	2	2	1	6
Medium	3	..	1	3	5	2	2	4	..	2
Large	6	..	5	4	3	6	1	3	..	2
Totals	10	0	11	9	13	12	5	9	1	10

may be included than is appropriate for comparative purposes, was $371. In 1951–52, omitting the same case, it is $506, an increase of 36.4 per cent.[1] The improvement is most marked for the six publicly supported institutions, where the mean has risen from $251 to $428, or 70.5 per cent. In 33 privately controlled institutions it has risen from $393 to $519, or 32.1 per cent. In the statistical tables in the Appendix to this report, institutional variations are indicated for each of three years, but it may be useful to show here the institutional standing, by region and also by size classification, for the earliest and latest years studied.

The Committee does not have comparable data on a sufficient number of these instituions to make a satisfactory comparison with the prewar years. There is little possibility, however, that the current dollar expenditure per student is equivalent in purchasing power to those in 1939–40.[2]

VIII

It will be clear from this review that progress has been made in several respects in the institutions covered in this study. Student-faculty ratios have generally returned to reasonable levels. In some cases they are extremely favorable. The proportions of the faculty in the upper ranks have improved. These proportions are generally good in the institutions studied, and in some they are rather remarkable. Salaries, too, have risen in terms of current dollars in the past three years, and in a number of institutions the percentage increases in the average salaries for the various ranks have more than balanced the rise in living costs since 1948. There is reason to believe, however, that salaries have not made up the ground lost in the earlier years of this inflationary decade. They are not, save perhaps for instructors

[1] In 1947–48, the range, omitting the extreme case, was from $216 to $589, the latter value in an institution which had held enrollment close to the prewar number. In 1951–52, the range, with the same omission, is from $337 to $841, the latter in an institution where enrollment is now only 10 per cent above the prewar level.

[2] In the Committee's study on "Income and Expenditure in 88 Colleges and Universities in the Academic Years 1938–39 and 1948–49" (*Bulletin*, Vol. 37, No. 1, Spring, 1951, pp. 111–142), it was found that the weighted average increase in 87 institutions for the years covered was only 37.6 per cent. In the 37 publicly supported institutions the increase was 54.3 per cent. In the 50 privately controlled institutions it was only 12.8 per cent. The Consumers' Price Index numbers rose approximately 70 per cent in the interval covered.

in some institutions, equivalent in purchasing power to those of the prewar years. Even if we refrain from generalizing on the basis of the selected institutions of this study, the conclusions of the Commission on Financing Higher Education are clear: institutional salaries generally have not kept pace with living costs. Nor has the profession maintained its relative economic position with respect to society in general or to professions with which it must compete for recruits. Its economic status has declined at a time when that of other income groups has improved. The manifest danger in this situation was clearly put by President Nason, of Swarthmore College, in a recent annual report:

> The prospect of genteel poverty will not attract into the teaching profession the kind of men and women we need. Indeed, this factor is already having an adverse effect on the flow of able people into elementary and secondary school teaching. For those already committed to the profession, however, the constant worry, the perennial scrimping, the continuous sense of frustration will reduce their effectiveness as teachers. Difficult as the present times are, an improvement in faculty salaries is imperative to the continued progress of Swarthmore and indeed of American education in general.

It is much simpler to mark the discrepancies which have developed than to discover ways to correct them. Fundamentally, it is a problem of increasing the income available to colleges and universities, and the sums needed are too large to be supplied simply by further increases in tuition rates. The greater part of the resources required must be provided by society itself, from individual or organized benefaction or from public funds. Careful reconsideration of the uses to which existing funds are put may offer some immediate, though partial, relief. Building programs and remodelling projects should be postponed whenever possible until adequate improvements in faculty salaries have been made. Administrative and maintenance expenditures, which have risen in many cases out of proportion to instructional salaries, should be re-examined carefully. Waste or inefficiency or frills should be eliminated wherever they exist, to make available means count to the utmost towards considered ends. This kind of economy will require a good deal of steady insistence, as well as ob-

jectivity, from teachers and administrators alike, but the effort is worth while. The President of one of our larger universities tells, in a recent annual report, of effecting savings, as the result of committee studies, of $200,000 a year, equivalent to the income on $5,000,000 of new capital. Such matters should not be overlooked by administrators, or by Chapter committees. The latter can be extremely useful to their institutions and to their colleagues in this as well as in other matters related to the problem of instructional salaries. Every reasonable resource should be utilized, for the needs are far greater than are likely to be met from a single source or by a single effort. The situation calls for combined efforts on all fronts by all interested parties.

* Albert H. Imlah (History), Tufts College, *Chairman*
Jewell Hughes Bushey (Mathematics), Hunter College
James Holladay (Economics), University of Alabama
* Harold N. Lee (Philosophy), Tulane University of Louisiana
Vernon A. Mund (Economics), University of Washington
* William A. Neiswanger (Economics), University of Illinois

* Subcommittee for the preparation of this report.

Appendix

The Statistical Tables

The basic data received from the 40 cooperating institutions have been prepared in essentially the same manner as those for the earlier studies in this series. The Committee has, however, omitted four purely regional classifications which were included in earlier reports and in which institutions of disparate size and complexity were grouped. This year each of the nine tables covers fairly homogeneous institutions in proximate regions classified by size and type. No institution appears in more than one table. Except in the case of Table III, where one institution has been dropped out, and Table VI, where the size classification has been enlarged to admit one institution not formerly included, the tables include the same institutions as in 1949–50. If it is desired to study salary changes in addition to those pointed out in this report, the other seven tables include exactly the same institutions classified for 1949–50. Although the numbers assigned to

the corresponding tables have necessarily been changed, identification is easy through similarity of titles.

As in the earlier reports, each table is composed of data on the four elements or measurements which we consider most relevant to instructional salary matters. These are (1) the ranges and typical values of instructional salaries, (2) the proportions of the faculty in each of the four conventional academic ranks, (3) the average numbers of full-time students or full-time equivalents for each full-time faculty member, and (4) the average amount spent per student for all instructional salaries. The data are arranged to give on one page the maximum amount of information on salary conditions in the component institutions in the group, without violating the pledge which the Committee has given not to identify the contributing institutions directly with their respective values.

It is not difficult to understand the meaning of the data presented in these detailed tables. In Table I, Six Small Institutions in New England and Middle Atlantic, for example, under the heading "Range of Minima," we read that the lowest minimum salary for professors in any of the six institutions is $5200, while the highest minimum salary in any of the six is $7750. The other four institutions in the group have minimum salaries on or between these amounts. Farther down in the table, the mean of minima shows that the arithmetic average of the various minima for professors in the six institutions is $6467. The median of the minima, $6550, indicates that in three of the six institutions the lowest salary for a professor is above this figure and that in three it is below this amount. The data on maxima are to be interpreted similarly.

Under the heading "Range of Means," in Table I, the entry for professors is $6950–8581. This indicates that the arithmetic mean, or average, of the salaries of the various professors in the institution with the lowest average in the group is $6950, while in the institution with the highest average it is $8581. Other institutions in this group fall on or between these values. The mean of means, cited further down in the table, indicates that the average of the various mean values of the six institutions was $6535 in 1948–49 and is $7603 in 1951–52. In computing these

means the average value for each institution is given equal weight regardless of the size of the institution or of its staff. (For weighted means see Table V, in the text of this report.)

The median of the means, lower in the table, adds further information with respect to the salaries of professors in these six institutions. It marks the middle value of the group. The mean salary of professors in three of the six institutions is above $7404 and in three it is below that figure. The fact that this median value is slightly lower than the mean of means for the group shows that the means in one or two strong institutions pull the average for the group above the middle value. If the median value were above the mean, it would indicate that one or two weaker institutions pull down the average for the group. The range of medians can be interpreted in much the same way as the range of means.

These data on salary conditions in 1951–52 in the 40 selected institutions have, we believe, a high degree of precision and reliability. They were collected after October 10, 1951, when the academic year was well under way, when enrollment figures had been compiled and staff appointments and salary contracts had been made. Estimates were required for only one item, the total amount expected to be spent for all instructional salaries in the current year, 1951–52. Furthermore, all institutions reported the precise amounts of the lowest and highest salaries actually paid in each rank. In approximately 85 per cent of the returns the mean and median values were computed by the institutions from direct payroll readings. In the remaining 15 per cent they were computed by the Committee from the data supplied on our frequency table by the institutions.

The questionnaires called for information on formal salary scales in each institution. In most cases the formal minima reported were precisely the amounts which are actually paid in each rank. Some institutions which have recognized floors for each rank reported that they have no fixed ceilings. Some, with ceilings, have broken through them in various instances. In only a few institutions are the formal floors above the minimum salary or salaries actually paid. We have, therefore, refrained from crowding the tables with these data.

I. Privately Controlled: Six Small Institutions (up to 1200 Students) in New England and Middle Atlantic

	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Minima	$5200– 7,750	$4200–6000	$3300–4600	$3000–3500
Maxima	7750–11,000	6000–8300	4750–8000	3900–4400
Means	6950– 8,581	5320–6565	4350–5119	3572–3932
Medians	7000– 9,000	5250–6500	4350–4900	3500–3900
Mean of:				
Minima	$6467	$5283	$4142	$3200
Maxima	9125	6875	5708	4162
Means 1948–49	6535	5105	4058	3021
1951–52	7603	5815	4687	3692
Medians	7521	5706	4642	3656
Median of:				
Minima	$6550	$5350	$4250	$3150
Maxima	9000	6725	5250	4187
Means	7404	5712	4667	3658
Medians	7062	5594	4650	3638
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	26.9	11.6	17.5	12.3
Maximum	57.9	28.0	30.1	29.5
Mean	38.9	17.8	24.1	19.1
Median	36.8	16.9	24.4	17.9

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	1951–52
Minimum	10.8	9.1
Maximum	16.8	14.2
Mean	12.7	10.8
Median	12.3	10.7

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	1950–51	1951–52
Minimum	$319	$443	$459
Maximum	509	719	841
Mean	430	541	600
Median	439	519	558

II. Privately Controlled: Five Medium-Sized Institutions (1200 to 4000 Students) in New England and Middle Atlantic

	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Minima	$5000– 7,000	$4000–5000	$3200–4200	$2300–3600
Maxima	8700–12,500	7500–9000	5700–6000	4000–4500*
Means	6199– 8,568	5058–5981	4114–5169	3250–3950
Medians	6000– 8,500	4950–6150	4000–4800	3200–3900
Mean of:				
Minima	$ 5,790	$4580	$3680	$2900
Maxima	11,240	7660	5890	4240
Means 1948–49	6,886	5304	4209	3260
1951–52	7,270	5636	4551	3540
Medians	7,130	5700	4480	3530

* A few individual appointments in one institution at higher amounts.

Median of:				
Minima	$ 5,500	$4500	$3500	$3000
Maxima	12,000	7500	6000	4250
Means	7,109	5750	4500	3442
Medians	6,900	5900	4500	3500
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	26.3	13.2	14.6	7.9
Maximum	48.7	28.8	35.8	25.3
Mean	37.1	19.9	26.1	16.9
Median	35.0	19.0	26.9	19.0

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	*1951–52*
Minimum	12.9	11.1
Maximum	21.7	16.6
Mean	15.0	12.7
Median	13.3	11.5

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$300	$313	$367
Maximum	522	626	676
Mean	435	497	531
Median	441	517	547

III. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: FOUR LARGE INSTITUTIONS IN NEW ENGLAND AND MIDDLE ATLANTIC

	Professors	*Associate Professors*	*Assistant Professors*	*Instructors*
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Minima	$ 6,000–10,000	$5000–6500	$4000–5000	$3000–4000
Maxima	15,000–17,500	7500–9000	5500–6000*	3600–4500
Means	7,769–12,600	5618–7990	4555–5415	3430–4000
Medians	7,364–12,500	5500–8000	4490–5500	3517–4000
Mean of:				
Minima	$ 8,000	$5750	$4325	$3250
Maxima	15,750	8375	5700	4025
Means 1948–49	9,186	6150	4505	3247
1951–52	9,947	6690	4859	3623
Medians	9,537	6625	4807	3660
Median of:				
Minima	$ 8,000	$5750	$4150	$3000
Maxima	15,250	8500	6000	4000
Means	9,709	6576	4734	3530
Medians	9,142	6501	4619	3561
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	32.4	18.1	16.6	14.8
Maximum	46.0	23.3	22.3	24.0
Mean	40.0	21.1	19.2	19.6
Median	40.9	21.5	18.9	19.9

* One appointment in one institution at a higher amount.

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member	*1948–49*	*1951–52*
Minimum	15.0	12.8
Maximum	23.7	19.3
Mean	20.1	16.3
Median	20.9	16.5

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries	*1947–48*	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$371	$425	$472
Maximum	482	580	668
Mean	421	494	553
Median	416	486	536

IV. Privately Controlled: Three Women's Colleges in New England and Middle Atlantic

	Professors	*Associate Professors*	*Assistant Professors*	*Instructors*
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Means	$6073–6832	$4939–5267	$3981–4550	$3125–3468
Medians	6095–6700	4876–5250	3922–4499	3150–3400
Mean of:				
Minima	$5788	$4686	$3903	$2819
Maxima	8118	5571	4517	3668
Means 1948–49	6045	4626	3667	2882
1951–52	6474	5069	4177	3264
Medians	6398	5042	4140	3243
Median of:				
Minima	$5800	$4558	$3710	$2800
Maxima	8400	5512	4452	3604
Means	6518	5000	4000	3198
Medians	6400	5000	4000	3180
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	25.5	19.3	17.9	11.6
Maximum	34.5	30.4	26.1	28.3
Mean	30.6	24.6	22.0	22.7
Median	31.9	24.1	22.1	28.3

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member	*1948–49*	*1951–52*
Minimum	9.4	9.3
Maximum	11.2	11.6
Mean	10.2	10.4
Median	10.0	10.4

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries	*1947–48*	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$427	$489	$475
Maximum	589	653	677
Mean	510	565	587
Median	513	552	609

V. Privately Controlled: Five Small Institutions (up to 1200 Students) in North Central and Pacific

	Professors	*Associate Professors*	*Assistant Professors*	*Instructors*
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Minima	$4800*–5550	$3600–4650	$3400–3700	$2700–3000
Maxima	6000–8500	4600–5400	4099–4750	3399–4100
Means	5284–6639	4261–4915	3623–4130	3046–3592
Medians	5094–6250	4184–5000	3569–4200	3062–3600
Mean of:				
Minima	$5160	$4190	$3540	$2900
Maxima	6772	5070	4420	3640

* One appointment at a lower amount.

Means 1948–49	5370	4205	3500	2845
1951–52	5888	4628	3920	3275
Medians	5724	4612	3912	3252
Median of:				
Minima	$5100	$4200	$3500	$3000
Maxima	6600	5000	4500	3500
Means	5904	4630	3921	3227
Medians	5750	4554	3900	3200
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	26.4	19.3	24.3	11.1
Maximum	40.0	28.8	28.8	22.8
Mean	30.7	24.7	26.9	17.7
Median	29.8	26.4	26.7	18.9

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	*1951–52*
Minimum	12.5	11.1
Maximum	17.2	14.0
Mean	14.4	12.2
Median	13.3	12.0

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$295	$392	$384
Maximum	368	515	477
Mean	317	437	425
Median	304	426	412

VI. Privately Controlled: Four Medium-Sized and Large Institutions in North Central and Pacific

	Professors	*Associate Professors*	*Assistant Professors*	*Instructors*
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Minima	$5000– 6,142	$4000–5092	$3300–4000	$2800–3600
Maxima	7980–15,000	6142–8200	5092–7500	4042–5000
Means	6625– 8,133	5277–6087	4334–4927	3551–3981
Medians	6650– 8,000	5200–6000	4300–4900	3500–4000
Mean of:				
Minima	$ 5,660	$4523	$3759	$3190
Maxima	11,120	7248	6023	4560
Means 1948–49	6,815	5208	4212	3248
1951–52	7,308	5577	4545	3728
Medians	7,204	5563	4542	3730
Median of:				
Minima	$ 5,750	$4500	$3867	$3180
Maxima	10,750	7325	5750	4600
Mean	7,237	5511	4459	3691
Medians	7,083	5558	4483	3711
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	20.7	23.4	16.8	13.0
Maximum	45.1	25.9	33.7	22.2
Mean	31.8	24.6	25.2	18.3
Median	30.8	24.6	25.3	19.0

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	*1951–52*
Minimum	12.9	12.1
Maximum	23.1	19.0
Mean	19.7	16.9
Median	21.4	18.2

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$324	$320	$386
Maximum	441	480	539
Mean	363	419	465
Median	344	439	468

VII. Privately Controlled: Four Medium-Sized and Large Institutions in South

	Professors	*Associate Professors*	*Assistant Professors*	*Instructors*
Instructional Salaries (9–10 month basis)				
Range of:				
Minima	$4950– 5,500	$3900–4800	$3200–3600	$2400–3000
Maxima	7250–10,750	6000–6500	5000–5500	3900–4500
Means	5591– 7,154	4848–5390	4224–4490	3318–3590
Medians	5555– 7,000	4825–5400	4135–4500	3500–3600
Mean of:				
Minima	$ 5,175	$4287	$3500	$2775
Maxima	9,500	6312	5212	4125
Means 1948–49	6,081	4698	4057	3135
1951–52	6,489	5124	4355	3473
Medians	6,389	5081	4346	3550
Median of:				
Minima	$ 5,125	$4225	$3600	$2850
Maxima	10,000	6375	5175	4050
Means	6,605	5129	4354	3491
Medians	6,500	5050	4375	3550
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %				
Minimum	25.0	21.5	23.4	13.6
Maximum	36.5	22.9	35.4	18.0
Mean	31.4	22.3	29.9	16.3
Median	32.1	22.5	30.4	16.8

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	*1951–52*
Minimum	16.4	13.4
Maximum	20.0	16.1
Mean	18.6	14.7
Median	18.9	14.7

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$240	$303	$337
Maximum	302	375	433
Mean	264	342	392
Median	258	346	399

VIII. PRIVATELY CONTROLLED: THREE INSTITUTES OF TECHNOLOGY IN NEW ENGLAND, NORTH CENTRAL, AND PACIFIC

	Professors	*Associate Professors*	*Assistant Professors*	*Instructors*
Instructional Salaries (10½ and 11–12 month basis combined; instructors 10 and 10½ month basis)				
Range of:				
Means	$8782–9686	$6648–6997	$5115–5455	$3400–3911
Medians	8000–9500	6500–7200	5000–5300	3400–3900
Mean of:				
Minima	$ 7,133	$5687	$4567	$2867
Maxima	13,500	8233	6967	4400
Means 1948–49	8,906	6671	5423	3556
1951–52	9,239	6788	5313	3642
Medians	9,000	6767	5133	3600
Median of:				
Minima	$ 7,000	$5760	$4500	$3000
Maxima	14,000	8200	6800	4800
Means	9,250	6719	5370	3615
Medians	9,500	6600	5100	3500
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty (9–10, 10½, and 11–12 month basis combined), %				
Minimum	22.6	19.3	18.5	2.8
Maximum	52.9	28.4	28.1	32.3
Mean	33.3	24.8	23.9	18.0
Median	24.5	26.6	25.0	19.0

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	*1951–52*
Minimum	10.5	7.3
Maximum	13.2	11.2
Mean	11.8	9.2
Median	12.5	9.2

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	*1950–51*	*1951–52*
Minimum	$416	$ 613	$ 674
Maximum	945	1122	1189
Mean	640	787	850
Median	558	627	686

IX. Six Large State Universities in North Central and Pacific

	Professors		Associate Professors		Assistant Professors		Instructors	
	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*	9 or 10 months	11 or 12 months*
Instructional Salaries								
Range of:								
Minima	$5270– 6,500	$7000– 7,875	$4720– 5,670	$5324– 6,600	$3700–4203	$4250–5100	$2700–3780	$3240–4500
Maxima	9375–17,200	8500–18,000	6500–11,000	7440–12,550	5000–7500	5640–9133	4000–6690	5208–7600
Means	7216– 8,683	8257– 9,553	5660– 6,349	6580– 7,498	4550–5150	5183–6003	3684–4337	4260–5043
Medians	7034– 8,418	8281– 9,389	5609– 6,233	6416– 7,450	4537–5110	5200–6000	3798–4321	4292–5027
Mean of:								
Minima	$ 5,955	$ 7,475	$5102	$6053	$4013	$4721	$2988	$3825
Maxima	13,021	12,292	8658	9750	6574	7656	5188	6256
Means 1948–49	7,087	7,752	5320	5931	4330	4857	3385	3778
1951–52	8,140	9,135	6103	7123	4929	5716	3966	4684
Medians	7,897	8,811	6044	7011	4918	5693	3943	4629
Median of:								
Minima	$ 6,080	$ 7,400	$5101	$6100	$4000	$4880	$2875	$3660
Maxima	13,150	12,360	8445	9500	6875	7875	5085	6250
Means	8,307	9,349	6130	7211	4983	5781	3929	4751
Medians	7,949	8,800	6098	7122	4995	5792	3870	4600
Proportions of Total Full-Time Faculty, %								
Minimum	19.3	1.3	12.6	1.2	14.9	1.9	9.6	1.4
Maximum	33.4	10.2	20.0	7.1	34.6	12.5	24.1	15.1
Mean	23.3	6.4	16.2	5.0	22.6	6.3	18.5	5.4
Median	21.2	6.2	16.9	5.9	21.9	4.2	20.3	3.6

Average Number of Students for Each Full-Time Faculty Member

	1948–49	1951–52
Minimum	15.7	9.7
Maximum	32.1	22.3
Mean	24.1	18.5
Median	22.9	19.3

Average Amount per Student Spent for All Instructional Salaries

	1947–48	1950–51	1951–52
Minimum	$216	$326	$367
Maximum	288	414	518
Mean	251	367	428
Median	247	371	402

* Five institutions.

TWO-YEAR GAINS IN SALARIES IN SIX LARGE STATE UNIVERSITIES, 1949-50 TO 1951-52
(9-10 month basis only)

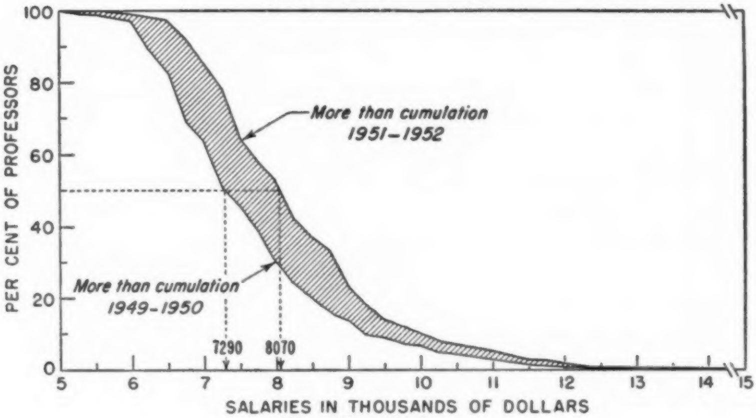


Chart XI—Professors

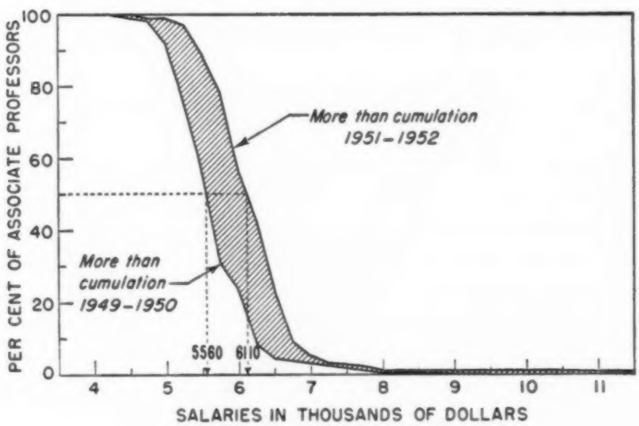


Chart XII—Associate Professors

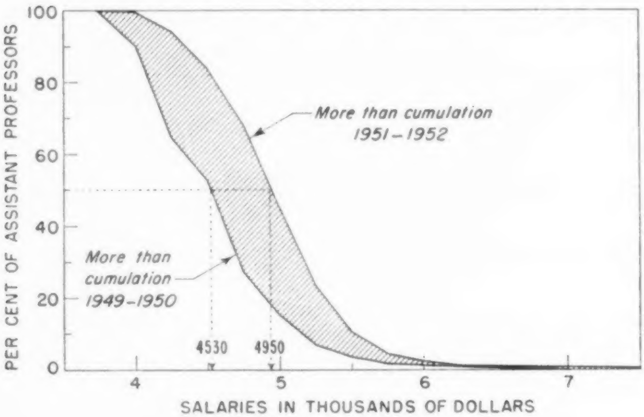


Chart XIII—Assistant Professors

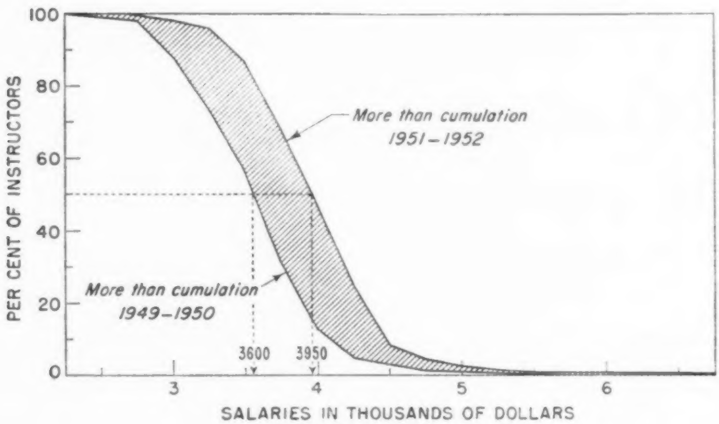


Chart XIV—Instructors

THE THIRTY-EIGHTH ANNUAL MEETING

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania—March 28-29, 1952

The Thirty-eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association of University Professors will be held in Philadelphia, Pa., at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel, Friday and Saturday, March 28–29, 1952. The program of the meeting, like those of previous Annual Meetings of the Association, will consist of addresses, symposia, reports of committees and forum discussions on subjects of concern to the academic profession. The Annual Dinner of the Association will be held on Friday evening, March 28.

The Annual Meeting of the Association is a meeting of the Association's membership. To facilitate the planning for the forthcoming Annual Meeting, a communication was sent to the membership as an enclosure with the billing for the annual dues for 1952 together with a reply form to be filled in and returned by the members who expect to attend. As stated in that communication, copies of the program of the meeting will be sent to Chapters of the Association early in March and to individual members of the Association upon request.

The Annual Meeting of the Association is held in a different part of the country each year. The purpose of this plan, which was inaugurated in 1947, is to enable a larger percentage of the membership to attend and to participate in an Annual Meeting. Whether or not this purpose is fulfilled, depends on the support given to the meeting by the membership in the area in which the meeting is held. It is hoped, therefore, that the membership of the Association in Pennsylvania, central and southern New York, central and western Massachusetts and Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, central and northern West Virginia and Virginia, the District of Columbia, and central and eastern Ohio will be well represented at the Annual Meeting in Philadelphia on March 28–29.

RALPH E. HIMSTEAD, *General Secretary*

Censured Administrations

Investigations by the American Association of University Professors of the administrations of the several institutions listed below show that they are not observing the generally recognized principles of academic freedom and tenure, endorsed by this Association, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Law Schools, the American Library Association (with adaptations for librarians), the American Political Science Association, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, and the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association.

Placing the name of an institution on this list does not mean that censure is visited either upon the whole of the institution or upon the faculty but specifically upon its present administration. The term "administration" includes the administrative officers and the governing board of the institution. This censure does not affect the eligibility of nonmembers for membership in the Association, nor does it affect the individual rights of our members at the institution in question, nor do members of the Association who accept positions on the faculty of an institution whose administration is thus censured forfeit their membership. This list is published for the sole purpose of informing our members, the profession at large, and the public that unsatisfactory conditions of academic freedom and tenure have been found to prevail at these institutions. Names are placed on or removed from this censured list by vote of the Association's Annual Meeting.

The censured administrations together with the date of censuring are listed below. Reports of investigations were published as indicated by the *Bulletin* citations.

West Chester State Teachers College West Chester, Pennsylvania (February, 1939, *Bulletin*, pp. 44–72)	December, 1939
Adelphi College, Garden City, New York (October, 1941 *Bulletin*, pp. 494–517)	December, 1941
University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri (October, 1941 *Bulletin*, pp. 478–493)	December, 1941
State Teachers College,[1] Murfreesboro, Tennessee (December, 1942 *Bulletin*, pp. 662–667)	May, 1943
Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina (April, 1942 *Bulletin*, pp. 173–176)	May, 1943
University of Missouri, Columbia and Rolla, Missouri (Summer, 1945 *Bulletin*, pp. 278–315)	June, 1946
University of Texas, Austin, Texas (Winter, 1944 *Bulletin*, pp. 627–634; Autumn, 1945 *Bulletin* pp. 462–465; Summer, 1946 *Bulletin*, pp. 374–385)	June, 1946
Evansville College, Evansville, Indiana (Spring, 1949 *Bulletin*, pp. 74–111)	March, 1950

Now[1] Middle Tennessee State College.

MEMBERSHIP

CLASSES AND CONDITIONS—NOMINATIONS AND ELECTIONS

Membership in the American Association of University Professors is open to all college and university teachers from the faculties of eligible institutions and to graduate students and graduate assistants. The list of eligible institutions is based primarily on the accredited lists of the established accrediting agencies subject to modification by action of the Association. Election to membership in the Association is by the Committee on Admission of Members upon nomination by one Active Member. Election takes place thirty days after the name of the nominee has been published in the *Bulletin*. The membership year in the Association is the calendar year (January 1 through December 31). The membership of nominees whose nominations are received before July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the current year. The membership of nominees whose nominations are received after July 1 becomes effective as of January 1 of the following year unless the nominee requests that his membership become effective as of January 1 of the current year.

The classes and conditions of membership are as follows:

Active. A person is eligible for election to Active membership if he holds a position of teaching and/or research, with the rank of instructor or its equivalent or higher, in an institution on the Association's eligible list, provided his work consists of at least half-time teaching and/or research. Annual dues are $5.00.

Junior. Junior membership is open to persons who are, or within the past five years have been, graduate students in eligible institutions and who are not eligible for Active membership. Junior Members are transferred to Active membership as soon as they become eligible. Annual dues are $3.00.

Associate. Associate membership is not an elective membership. Active and Junior Members whose work becomes primarily

administrative are transferred to Associate membership. Annual dues are $3.00.

Emeritus. Any member retiring for age from a position in teaching or research may be transferred to Emeritus membership. Emeritus Members are exempt from dues. They may continue to receive the *Bulletin* at a special rate of $1.00 a year.

Continuing Eligibility. Change of occupation or transfer to an institution not on the Association's eligible list does not affect eligibility for continuance of membership.

Interruption or Termination of Membership. Interruption or termination of membership requires notification to the Association's Washington office. In the absence of such notice, membership continues with receipt of the *Bulletin* for one calendar year, during which time there is an obligation to pay dues.

Nominations for Membership

The following 1300 nominations for Active membership and 23 nominations for Junior membership are published as provided in the Constitution of the Association. Protests of nominations may be addressed to the General Secretary of the Association who will, in turn, transmit them for the consideration of the Committee on Admission of Members. The Council of the Association has ruled that the primary purpose of this provision for protests is to bring to the attention of the Committee on Admission of Members questions concerning the technical eligibility of nominees for membership as provided in the Constitution of the Association. To be considered, such protests must be filed with the General Secretary within thirty days after this publication.

Active

Adams State College, Walter O. Dahlin, Phyllis L. Dunham, Margaret McKenzie, Robert C. Olson; **Adelphi College,** Dorothy McC. Fraser, Irving Leskowitz, Harry W. Pearson, Elizabeth St. Vincent; **University of Akron,** Dorothy I. Biesinger, Michael Bezbatchenko, Ruth B. Clayton, Gerald Corsaro, Lincoln Deihl, Theodore T. Duke, Dennis Gordon, Elizabeth J. Hittle, Irene Horning, George Leuca, Jr., Priscilla Meyer, Ivan N. Parkins, Omar Perez, William M. Petry, Ruth M. Raw, Gabe Sanders, Annette K. Seery, Evelyn M. Tovey, Alvin C. Wolfe, Winnigene Wood; **Alabama College,** Mary I. Flowers; **Alabama Polytechnic Institute,** Ruth Albrecht, Walter S. Collins,

D. P. Culp, W. L. Davis, John F. Duerst, Tokuji Furuta, Chester W. Hartwig, Willard H. Nelson, James D. Thomas; **University of Alabama,** Oscar R. Ainsworth, Henry C. Barrett, John H. Boyd, Jr., Lucile Crutcher, William A. Dale, Jean DeLaney, Adrian S. Harris, Melvin Henriksen, Harold R. Katner, Helen Linkswiler, Joseph C. O'Kelley, Thomas D. Shumate, Jr., John C. Stewart, Clarice Strange; **Alfred University,** Lewis W. Field; **Allegheny College,** Deane Carson, Fred Courtney, Reba Garvey, Ralph E. Hitt, Pauline A. Schofield; **Alma College,** Wilson Daugherty; **American University,** Pheobe H. Knipling, Frances McGehee, C. H. Harry Neufeld, William L. Reno, Jr.; **Arizona State College (Flagstaff),** Lillian L. Biester, Mozelle Wood; **University of Arkansas,** Beulah V. Gillaspie, John W. Keesee, Charles Lincoln, Harold Shniad; **Augustana College (South Dakota),** Palmer Eide, John A. Froemke, William E. Kuhn, Stanley L. Olsen, Walter C. Schnackenberg, Richard W. Solberg.

Baldwin-Wallace College, Paul L. Adams, Varner M. Chance, Catherine A. Cole, Walter Hasenmuller, Louis B. Juillerat, M. Scheffel Pierce, Guilford A. Plumley, Alan P. Squire; **Ball State Teachers College,** Robert A. McCall, Helen Masha, Beeman N. Phillips; **Bates College,** Ernest P. Muller; **Beloit College,** Joseph Barrell, Edward C. Carlton, William S. Godfrey, Jr., Donald A. Murray, Ethel Sandwick, C. F. Joseph Tom, Robert R. Tweedle, J. Rodman Williams; **Berea College,** Robert W. Bigelow, Ruth DeGamboa, Thomas B. Hart, Orrin L. Keener, Pat W. Wear; **Bethany College (West Virginia),** John D. Draper; **Blackburn College,** Gordon G. Gabel, Roger A. Max, Warren S. Walker; **Boise Junior College,** Ada P. Burke, Clisby T. Edlefsen; **Bowdoin College,** Charles S. Benson, Robert M. Cross, James F. Tierney, Robert W. Winter; **Bowling Green State University,** Luther M. Bivins, William R. Crider, A. Bruce Graham, Jean S. Harwig, Wayne D. Martin; **Bradley University,** Ernest Ising; **Brandeis University,** James Duffy, Richard S. Eckaus, Hannah Estermann, Oscar Goldman, Jay W. Gossner, Irving Heller, Albert Kelner, Abraham H. Maslow, Harry Zohn; **Briarcliff Junior College,** Elizabeth Desch; **University of Bridgeport,** Chung-Ming Wong; **University of British Columbia,** Murray A. Cowie, M. W. Steinberg; **Brooklyn College,** Georgia H. Wilson; **Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn,** Frederick M. Beringer, George A. Buckle.

California Institute of Technology, Robert F. Bacher; **California State Polytechnic College,** Rufus C. Hatfield; **University of California,** Everett L. Jones, Charles R. Nixon, Vern W. Robinson, Charles A. Schroeder, Geraldine Skinner, Lulu K. Wolf; **Canal Zone Junior College,** Charles R. Bowen, Subert Turbyfill; **Carnegie Institute of Technology,** Edward S. Herman, Howard G. Miller; **Carson-Newman College,** Joe A. Chapman; **Carthage College,** Paul K. Glasoe; **Catholic University of America,** Tatiana Fotitch; **Central State College (Ohio),** Beverly H. Heard; **Champlain College,** Robert Endleman, Ersel E. LeMasters; **University of Chattanooga,** George Cress, James B. Foxworth; **Chicago Teachers College,** Leonard J. Simutis, Eloise S. Thetford; **University of Cincinnati,** Mearl R. Guthrie; **The City College,** Nathan Berall, Samuel Z. Klausner, Joseph A. Von Bradish, Henry Wasser, John R. White, Oscar Zeichner; **Clark University,** Stanford L. Luce, Jr., Walter H. Zukowski; **Clemson Agricultural College,** Edward T. Brown, Robert E. Lovett, Robert

LaM. St. Hubert; **Colby College,** James M. Carpenter, Perley M. Leighton, Lucille K. Pinette, Norman S. Smith, John H. Sutherland; **Colgate University,** Charles S. Brant, Stanley N. Kinney, H. Mark Roelofs; **Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College,** James C. Wilson; **University of Colorado,** Robert G. Buschman, Marjorie B. Stephenson; **Columbia University,** Philip Klein; **University of Connecticut,** Walter R. Ihrke, Harold O. Perkins, Kenneth G. Wilson; **The Cooper Union,** Joseph E. McGovern; **Cornell College,** Glenn L. McFarland, Gertrude S. Miner; **Cornell University,** Joseph Carreiro.

Dartmouth College, A. Kunrad Kvam; **Denison University,** Richard G. Adams, Hartley R. Alley, William O. Brasmer, Julia R. Denham, Fred L. Preston, Wyndham M. Southgate; **De Paul University,** Simon J. Smith; **DePauw University,** Miles D. Markusch, Martha A. Simons; **Drew University,** Walter A. Glass; **Duke University,** Lenox D. Baker, Allan H. Bone, Ivan W. Brown, Jr., Louis D. Cohen, Maurice H. Greenhill, Leslie B. Hohman, Joe H. Little, Eugen Merzbacher, George W. Nace, Edward S. Orgain, Elbert L. Persons, Robert J. Reeves, D. Gordon Sharp, Violet H. Turner, Barnes Woodhall; **Duquesne University,** Frank J. Heintz, Jr., Thomas J. Lowery.

Elmhurst College, George H. Langeler; **Emerson College,** Albert M. Cohn; **Emory University,** Warren E. Gauerke, Sidney M. Jourard, Angus G. Pearson, Arthur J. Riopelle, James W. Simmons.

Fairmont State College, Anne M. Barry, Charles M. Hedges, Alton F. R. Lawrence, George H. Turley, Jerry J. West; **Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College,** Timothy T. Lewis, James B. Randolph, Leon Steele; **Florida Southern College,** Yvonne H. Goldsborough; **Florida State University,** Bertil H. Boer, Curtis W. Cannon, Francis A. Cartier, Harrison V. Chase, Eugene N. Crabb, Anna C. F. Cramer, T. Stanton Dietrich, Myrtle L. Floyd, Nona M. Goodson, Robert L. Leathers, John H. McMurry, John A. Permenter, Marion C. Riser, Jr., Leon Sherman, Ivan D. Steiner, Henry M. Stevenson, Marion C. Thompson, Burke G. Vanderhill, Robert E. Wolverton; **University of Florida,** Agnes P. Borgia, Robert M. Dillon, Robert O. Evans, Seldon D. Feurt, Willis W. Harman, Michael Klein, Margaret E. Knox, Eugene G. Kovach, Ernest L. Kretschmar, Marinos H. Latour, Edward J. Miles, Roger W. Sampson, Earl M. Sawyer, George F. Schrader, Alexander G. Smith, George E. Wolff; **Franklin College of Indiana,** Harold Brinegar, Evelyn Hilbert; **Fresno State College,** Donald J. Dettinger, Carlene Rose; **Furman University,** Burrell L. Wood, Jr.

George Pepperdine College, Richard L. Clark, Norman C. Cooper, Glenn G. Gooder, Mary Jane Haden; **Goucher College,** William C. Budd, Susan K. Fleischmann; **Guilford College,** Carl C. Baumbach; **Gustavus Adolphus College,** Chester O. Johnson, Kyle Montague.

Hamline University, Reginald G. Buehler; **Harris Teachers College,** Victoria Schmidt; **Haverford College,** John D. Campbell, Herndon G. Dowling; **University of Hawaii,** Richard S. Alm, Anthony J. Amato, Abe Arkoff, Marcia Bowman, George W. Chu, Edward F. Chui, Richard H. Clark, William W. Davenport, Orrel Davis, Virginia Derstine, Ella L. Embree, Boletha Frojen,

Donald I. Gustuson, Wesley Hervey, Claude Horan, John Hoshor, Virginia A. Jones, Ruth Kentzler, Norma Larsen, James K. Lowers, Sumi McCabe, Mary Lou McPherson, John Naumu, Alvin C. Saake, James C. Shields, Kobe Shoji, Otto R. Younge; **Hofstra College,** Thomas J. Brown, Cynthia P. Deutsch, Lucrecia R. Lopez, Florence Maly; **Hood College,** Clara H. Mueller, Charles A. Sprenkle; **University of Houston,** John P. Owen, Edyth Wagner; **Howard University,** Ethna B. Winston; **Humboldt State College,** Howard V. Finston; **Hunter College,** E. Rosalinda Garcia, Jacob Weinberg.

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Junior

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The Committee on Admission of Members announces the election to membership in the Association of 479 Active and 9 Junior Members as follows:

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Adelphi College, William Wasserstrom; **Air Force Institute of Technology,** Kenneth M. McMillin; **Air University,** Littleton B. Atkinson; **Alabama Polytechnic Institute,** Olga M. Bibza, Kenneth H. Garren, Cecil E. Hammett, Nathaniel Macon; **Alabama State Teachers College (Livingston),** John G. Hoover, A. J. Killebrew; **University of Alabama,** E. L. Grove, Ralph M. Roberts, Marjorie Ann Swift; **Alma College,** Eugene F. Grove, Henry W. Howe, Harlan R. McCall, A. Westley Rowland, Glen C. Stewart; **American University,** George P. Bush, Charles M. Hersh, Melville J. Ulmer; **Amherst College,** John R. Galt, Robert P. Levine, Sanborn Partridge, Richard Waidelich, Henry T. Yost, Jr.; **Appalachian State Teachers College,** Russell E. Diener; **University of Arkansas,** Perry M. Johnston, John A. Sealander, Jr., Clem W. Thompson, Howard F. Young; **University of Arkansas (Medical School),** Ralph H. Fouser; **Augustana College (South Dakota),** Helmer M. Belgen, Hugo A. Carlson, Edwin W. Gunberg, Carl R. Youngdahl.

Ball State Teachers College, Russell Burkhart, Richard L. Dunham, Roberta Law, Leslie J. Mauth, Mildred Moore, Raymond A. Olson, Richard E. Peterson, William P. Roseberry, Maria Sexton, Richard L. Stolper, Mark E. Studebaker, George W. Welker; **Baylor University,** Eugene H. Taylor; **Beloit College,** Robert H. Fossum, John H. Kemler; **Bethel College,** J. Winfield Fretz; **Boston University,** E. Winston Jones, Virgil L. Rankin; **Bowdoin College,** Alfred O. Gross; **University of Bridgeport,** Ralph L. Cohen; **University of British Columbia,** Dorothy F. Dallas, G. Joyce Hallamore; **Bucknell University,** Kathrine M. Brown, Helena Nechi, Neil F. Shiffler; **University of Buffalo,** Lyle Glazier.

University of California, David W. Mitchell, Isabella H. Perry; **University of California (Los Angeles),** Irving Maltzman; **University of California (Santa Barbara),** Lloyd Browning, William G. Knife, John W. Sutton; **Carbon College,** William C. Cross; **Carnegie Institute of Technology,** William M. Schutte; **Catholic University of America,** John J. O'Sullivan; **Central State College (Ohio),** William H. Barnes, John H. Cooper, James E. Harrison, Jr., Lewis A. Jackson; **Chaffey College,** John Harris; **Chapman College,** Donald E. Wilson; **Chicago Medical School,** Rudolf Dreikurs; **Chicago Teachers College,** George W. Connelly, Jerome J. Siegel, Louise Tyler, Sylvan Ward, Irwin Widen; **University of Cincinnati,** Freeman F. Suagee; **The City College,** Robert J. Matthew, Peter Prehn, Abram Taffel; **Clark College (Washington),** Hermine D. Decker; **College of Medicine at New York City,** Robert A. Turner; **Colorado Agricultural and Mechanical College,** Marjorie Brown; **Colorado College,** Howard R. Burkle, Edward B. Greene, J. Victor Hopper, Molly H. Lynn, Thomas W. Ross, Warren H. R Stannard; **University of Colorado,** Leighton L. Anderson, S. Gilbert Blount, David Hawkins, Robert J. Williams; **University of Connecticut,** Vernon E. Anderson, Edward P. Parry; **Cornell University,** William W. Lambert, Ben E. Sheffy, Derald A. Stuart.

Dartmouth College, Edward S. Brown, James A. Browning, Edwin A. Sherrard, George A. Taylor; **University of Delaware,** Mayo Greenberg, Martin A. Hirshfeld; **University of Denver,** Ernest C. Andersen, Allan P. Crawfurd; **University of Detroit,** Andre M. Weitzenhoffer; **Duke University,** Thomas A. Schafer, Leslie C. Wilbur.

Emerson College, Marion J. Mitchell; **Emory University,** Maurice C. Langhorne.

Fairleigh Dickinson College, Henry C. Chen; **Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College,** Minnie E. Cureton, Dorothy W. Graham; **Florida State University,** Sidney Foster, Eugene C. Price; **University of Florida,** James N. Thurston; **Fordham University (Manhattan),** Francis P. McQuade; **Fort Valley State College,** Thelma B. Brown; **Furman University,** Albert L. Myers.

George Pepperdine College, Paul R. Highby, Russell N. Squire; **Middle Georgia College,** Inez M. Brown, Nicole R. Heidler; **Georgia Institute of Technology,** Ernest W. Aldredge, Dale L. Barker, Everett R. Bollinger,

Walter S. Buckingham, Jr., John T. Etheridge, William A. Flinn, G. W. Gilman, Warren E. Moeller, James W. Sweeney, Samuel Thomson; **University of Georgia,** Margaret H. Blair; **University of Georgia (Atlanta Division),** Harold L. Johnson; **Gettysburg College,** Kathrine Taylor; **Gustavus Adolphus College,** Andrew L. Seim.

University of Hawaii, Shigeo Okubo, John B. Robertson, Jr.; **Hillyer College,** Frederic W. Rossomando; **Hiram College,** Adah Peirce; **Hofstra College,** Rhoda S. Kraus; **College of the Holy Cross,** Olier L. Baril; **University of Houston,** John McCluhan, Jr.; **Howard University,** Edward W. Hawthorne, Tag E. Mansour, E. Anthony Morgan.

North Idaho Junior College, Gertrude Gilbert; **Illinois State Normal University,** Arlan C. Helgeson; **Northern Illinois State Teachers College,** James J. Martin; **Southern Illinois University,** Reino S. Freeman, Abraham Mark; **University of Illinois,** Frances B. Jenkins, Kenton A. Kendall, Alvin L. Lang, Austin M. Lashbrook, Walter M. Lifton, Donald Thistlethwaite; **Iowa State College,** Saul Altshuler, Damon V. Caton, Horace B. Cheney, Paul G. Homeyer, Norman L. Jacobson, Edward H. Kerner, Arthur R. Porter, Charlotte E. Roderuck, Nelson Yeardley; **State University of Iowa,** Richard Hoppin.

Jackson College (Mississippi), Bolton C. Price; **Johns Hopkins University,** Bacon F. Chow, Roger M. Herriott, Abraham G. Osler.

Kalamazoo College, Elizabeth M. Mayer, Allen B. Stowe, Donald W. Van Liere; **Kansas State College,** Louis Ellsworth, Francis C. Lanning; **Fort Hays Kansas State College,** C. Thomas Barr, C. Richard Cain, Jeanne M. Kuhn, Robert F. Olberding, Wilbur Rayburn, Ivan L. Richardson; **Eastern Kentucky State College,** Clifton A. Basye, Allie Fowler, Evelyn Slater; **University of Kentucky,** Dwight M. Seath, Eldred C. Speck.

Lafayette College, Donald Day; **Lehigh University,** Albert G. Peterkin III, Howard J. B. Ziegler; **Los Angeles City College,** Herbert B. Alexander, Imo P. Baughman, Archibald W. Bell, O. H. Cady, H. Kenn Carmichael, Arthur Carthew, John H. Griffith, Robert H. Hirsch, Randal H. Lease, Robert P. Mac Donald, Eugene C. McKnight, Gilbert S. Moore, John F. Putman, Philip J. Schlessinger, Robert C. Williamson, Sherwin F. Wood; **Louisiana College,** George C. Herndon; **Northeast Louisiana State College,** Mary H. Clay; **Louisiana Polytechnic Institute,** Lorimer E. Storey; **Louisiana State University,** Charles Barnett, James P. Payne, Jr.; **University of Louisville,** Fred W. Kniffin; **Loyola University (Louisiana),** Edward M. Socola.

Macalester College, Robert P. Anderson; **Marquette University,** Clifford R. Haymaker, Journet Kahn, George W. Knick, Rudolph E. Morris, Kelvin M. Parker; **University of Maryland,** Joaquin B. Diaz; **University of Maryland (Maryland State College),** Portia C. Dix, Julius A. Oliver; **Memphis State College,** Dorothy R. Seay; **Mercer University,** Hayden C. Bryant, Harold L. McManus; **Miami University,** Violet L. Patton; **Central Michigan College of Education,** Rachel Loughridge; **Northern Michigan College of Education,** Kenneth W. Brenner, Harry B. Ebersole, William H. Raleigh·

Western Michigan College of Education, M. Dezena Loutzenhiser, Margaret B. Macmillan; **Michigan State College,** A. Conrad Posz; **University of Michigan,** Solomon J. Axelrod, W. Robert Dixon, Daniel Resch, Robert G. Shedd; **Millsaps College,** Mabel B. Cobb, Dale R. Dunnihoo, R. Stewart Smith, William S. Winn; **Milwaukee-Downer College,** Martin L. Cohnstaedt, Anna B. Lay; **University of Minnesota,** Morgan Blum, Bryant R. Dunshee, Franz Halberg, Frank Kiesler, Cecelia R. Lediger, Carl L. Nelson, Neva M. Petersen, Leon Singer, Donald C. Swanson; **Mississippi Southern College,** Robert C. Congleton, J. L. Milam, Jack D. Munn, Ralph S. Owings, Nellie Stuart, Edward J. Thomas, Dan Young; **Mississippi State College,** Prentice A. Caraway, Henry B. Green, G. Keith Parris, James D. Ray, Jr., Ethelbert W. Stafford, James W. Taylor, Eugene E. Wiese; **University of Mississippi,** Jo Ann H. Boydston, Sylvester A. Moorhead, Mary C. Petty; **University of Missouri,** Vernon E. Odmark; **Missouri Valley College,** Harold E. Affsprung, Harris T. Hall; **Eastern Montana College of Education,** Richard L. Henderson, Lydia Smiley; **Monticello College,** Bert A. Smith; **Morehead State College,** LeRoy Weil; **Morgan State College,** John P. Bond; **Mount Holyoke College,** Ruth L. Elvedt; **Muskingum College,** Charles Kruzan.

University of Nebraska, Robert C. Sorensen; **Nebraska Wesleyan University,** Dale H. Weeks; **University of Nevada,** Frank S. Scott, Jr.; **University of New Hampshire,** Frangcon L. Jones, Howard V. Jones, Jr., John Korbel, John A. Lockwood, Richard D. Merritt, Austin L. Olney, Gerrit H. Roelofs, John H. Romani, Charles M. Wheeler, Jr., Edith W. Yeomans; **New Jersey State Teachers College (Trenton),** Emerson H. Loucks; **New Mexico Highlands University,** Luis E. Aviles, Valda Eichholtz, Raymond D. Jameson, Mary Jean Lee, Ernest S. Luce, Opal S. Moore, Richard L. O'Connell, Jr., Seth H. Parsons, Roberta H. Zohn; **New York State Teachers College (Cortland),** William W. Adams, H. Jean Berger, Lena DiCicco, Jessie H. Hahn, Audrey Helmer, William Olcott, Charles N. Poskanzer; **New York State Teachers College (Geneseo),** Gordon Goewey; **Agricultural and Technical College of North Carolina,** Gwendolyn T. Dickson; **North Carolina State College,** Herbert Collins; **University of North Carolina,** Clifford Sturdevant, Nathan A. Womack; **Woman's College of the University of North Carolina,** Wayne Bowman, Jane C. Frost, Francis A. Laine; **North Dakota State Teachers College (Minot),** Esther-Rose Knudson, Paul B. Moore; **Northwestern University,** Murray Peshkin.

Ohio State University, N. Wilson Britt, Robert E. Christin, Jr., Allan S. Fox, Kenneth W. Hamilton, Wayne W. Hayes, Hans Sperber; **Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College,** Raymond B. Marshall, Reginald C. Perry, Hobart E. Stocking, James D. Tarver, Girdie H. Ware; **Oklahoma City University,** Constantine A. Apostolides, Leonard L. Clifton, Homer Hixson; **Oregon State College,** Adelaide V. Lake, Thelma J. McMillan, Isabella McQuesten, Glen T. Nelson, Margaret Tims, James W. Walton III, Fred E. Winger, G. Burton Wood.

Pacific University, Thomas S. Molnar; **Pennsylvania State College,** Joseph

H. Britton, Harold L. Hinman, Vance E. Moyer; **Pennsylvania State Teachers College (California),** Eugene J. Hester; **Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Indiana),** Maurice L. Rider, Margaret Stewart; **Pennsylvania State Teachers College (Millersville),** Coral E. Melson; **University of Pennsylvania,** Henry J. Abraham, Cecil J. Burnett, G. Edward Janosik, William S. Peters; **University of Pittsburgh,** Kenneth V. Curry, Dorothy A. Feldman, Joseph V. Greco, Adolph G. Kammer, Erston V. Miller, Benjamin H. Mount, Jr., Holland L. Robb, Patricia Sacks, Gerhard P. Schuck-Kolben, Carroll A. Whitmer, William G. Willis; **University of Portland,** Angel Rugina; **Pratt Institute,** David Vitrogan; **University of Puerto Rico,** Enrique Bird-Pinero, Simon Rottenberg.

Randolph-Macon Woman's College, Maria Diez de Onate; **Rice Institute,** J. R. Risser, Trenton W. Wann; **Rocky Mountain College,** Louise Sommer; **Rollins College,** Hugh F. McKean; **Roosevelt College,** Nellie G. McCarty; **Rutgers University,** Bradford Abernethy, Edward R. Allen, Julius L. Rothman; **Rutgers University (Newark Colleges),** Henry Blumenthal, Morton J. Rodman.

Sacramento State College, Charlotte M. Bergstrom, Chaille M. Love, Edwin B. Weinberg; **College of St. Catherine,** Rachel L. Fralick; **St. Louis University,** Roland M. Nardone; **Sam Houston State Teachers College,** Jessie Newell; **San Diego State College,** James W. Taylor; **San Francisco State College,** Donald C. Biggs; **San Jose State College,** Jack H. Holland, William H. Vatcher, Jr.; **Seattle University,** Nazleh Vizetelly; **Seton Hall University,** Elizabeth M. Nugent, Eden E. Sarot; **Smith College,** Bernard Barber; **University of the South,** Raymond H. Forbes, Gilbert F. Gilchrist, Robert W. Jordan, Brinley Rhys, Gertrude Van Zandt; **South Dakota State College,** Douglas Chittick, Gayland L. Draegert, Albert D. Evenson, Malcolm M. Marsden, Leo F. Puhr, Richard F. Wilson; **Southwestern College,** Mildred L. Skinner; **Southwestern State College,** Edna Muldrow; **Stanford University,** William R. Odell, Richard W. Reichard; **State Agricultural and Mechanical College (South Carolina),** Larney G. Rackley; **Swarthmore College,** Joseph W. Conard.

Tarleton State College, Ralph H. Walker; **Temple University,** Margaret C. Collins, John Freehafer, Frances H. Marr; **East Tennessee State College,** Harold H. Dugger; **Middle Tennessee State College,** Lane L. Boutwell, Mary Hall, Howard G. Kirksey, Ellis S. Rucker, Jr., Roscoe L. Strickland, Jr., Helen Trivett, Henrietta Wade, Charlotte Williams; **University of Tennessee,** Charles E. Allred, John H. Krueger, Alberta L. Lowe; **Texas Christian University,** Comer Clay, Marguerite Potter; **University of Texas,** Otto A. Bessey, C. Wallace McNutt; **Texas Wesleyan College,** Joe C. Ashby; **University of Toledo,** Curtis M. Wilson; **Tufts College,** Kenneth N. Astill, Clifton W. Emery; **Tulane University of Louisiana,** Walter S. Jenkins, Margaret H. D. Smith; **Tuskegee Institute,** William A. Hunter.

Utah State Agricultural College, Gwendella Thornley, A. Glenn Wahlquist; **University of Utah,** Roger Bailey, Rufus Lumry, Charles J. Thorne.

Vanderbilt University, Ingram Bloch, Merlin D. Peterson; **Villanova College,** John S. Earwaker, Jr.; **Medical College of Virginia,** Susanne Hirt; **University of Virginia,** Robert M. Musselman.

Wagner College, Edythe Kershaw; **Washburn Municipal University of Topeka,** Roy R. Bartlett; **Eastern Washington College of Education,** William W. Force; **State College of Washington,** Eugenia I. Howson, Barbara J. Klopfer, Ruth McClead, Ouida Moore, Louise M. C. Windhusen; **Washington University,** Harrison D. Heath; **University of Washington,** Wayne Burns, Alex Gotteried; **West Virginia Wesleyan College,** Nellie G. Wilson; **Western College,** Edward W. Pohlman; **Westminster College (Missouri),** William Bleifuss; **Westminster College (Pennsylvania),** Wallace N. Jamison; **Whitman College,** Alvin B. Cline, Georgia Standing; **College of William and Mary (Richmond Professional Institute),** Alger Y. Maynard; **Williams College,** Robert C. Ramsdell; **Wilson College,** Josephine M. Harris.

Yale University, Stephen W. Reed; **Yeshiva University,** Maurice E. Chernowitz; **Youngstown College,** David S. Ives.

Transfers from Junior to Active

Boston University, Arthur K. Littlefield; **Bowling Green State University,** Eugene D. Schmiedl; **University of California,** Robert N. Goss; **Purdue University,** James E. Evans; **Southern Methodist University,** Marjorie Adams; **Stanford University,** Edward H. Brooks; **Wayne University,** Peter J. Stanlis.

Junior

Adelphi College, Melvin A. Gravitz; **University of Denver,** William R. McKenzie; **Loyola University (Illinois),** Robert H. G. Monninger; **Stanford University,** H. Sheldon Campbell; **Western Reserve University,** John V. Hagopian; **Not in Accredited Institutional Connection,** Marie Hogan (M.A. George Peabody College for Teachers), Montgomery, West Virginia; Robert Paine (M.A. University of Pennsylvania), Huntington, Indiana; Samuel Pleasants (Ph.D. Columbia University), Leonia, New Jersey; Herbert A. Wisbey, Jr. (Ph.D. Columbia University), Elberon, New Jersey.

Academic Vacancies and Teachers Available

To assist in the placement of college and university teachers the American Association of University Professors publishes notices of academic vacancies and of teachers available. Factual data and expressions of personal preference in these notices are published as submitted. It is optional with appointing officers and teachers to publish names and addresses or to use key numbers.

Letters in response to announcements published under key numbers should be sent to the Association's central office for forwarding to the persons concerned. Address in care of the General Secretary, American Association of University Professors, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Vacancies Reported

Business and Commerce: Positions in marketing, industrial management, journalism, and business research open in Middle Western university. Ph.D. preferred in marketing, business research, and journalism. M.B.A. and engineering training acceptable in industrial management. Teaching and practical experience desired. Positions open in September, 1952, or possibly June, 1952. Salaries and rank contingent upon training and experience. V 1301

Chemistry: In church-related college approved by the American Chemical Society. M.S. minimum, with interests in analytical or physical chemistry and in teaching. Appointment as instructor or assistant professor, depending upon qualifications. Needed September, 1952, to work in general chemistry and one other class. Interest in research or writing encouraged. V 1302

Education: Applications are invited for the post of assistant professor in the Faculty of Education, University of Manitoba. Commencing salary $3800. Applicants should be specially qualified in the Methods of Teaching Science and also be able to offer courses in either Comparative Education or the History of Education. They should have had several years' experience as a teacher of science in school, and have a Masters Degree in Education. Applications should be made to the Dean of Education, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada.

English: Position, permanent for right person, in church-affiliated liberal arts college of high standing. Load approximately 14 hours. Composition and one elective each semester. Want young man about 30 with some experience and reasonably near doctorate. Must be member of Protestant Church. V 1303

English and Journalism: Instructor for 1952–1953 to teach elementary journalism and freshman composition in a technological school of high standing. Young, unmarried man preferred. V 1304

Immediate permanent vacancy for a mathematician or mathematical physicist for work in differential equations of air shock and detonation theory or in related problems in chemical physics. Interest in nonlinear partial differential equations desired, but experience in this field is not expected. Opportunity to continue graduate work in neighboring institutions. Salary $4200 (for M.A.) to $5900 (for Ph.D. or equivalent experience).

Summer vacancies for physicist, mathematicians, engineers, and physical metallurgists at all levels ($3400–$9600 per annum), three to four months' work.

Write Dr. Jane Dewey, Terminal Ballistic Laboratory, Ballistic Research Laboratories, Aberdeen Proving Ground, Md., or make formal application to Mr. S. H. Clarke, Civilian Personnel Division, Aberdeen Proving Ground, Md.

Teachers Available

Administration: Man, 37, married, 1 child. A.B., Ph.D., Yale, sociology. 1940–1942, instructor, sociology, Colgate; 1942–1943, confidential war work, War and Justice Departments; 1943–1946, Army private to captain, including assignment as chief historian, Theater of Operations, and director, research staff, awarded Bronze Star with Oak Leaf Cluster. 1946–1947, assistant professor of sociology and assistant to the president, leading woman's college; 1947 to date, business manager at same with supervision of between 75–150 nonacademic personnel, depending on seasonal activity. Several journal articles, radio and public speaking, cordial relations with faculty and townspeople. Seeking change of job because desirous of more scope and responsibility. Excellent references. A 4086

Administration, English: Man, 36, veteran, married, 3 children. Harvard Ph.D. 10 years' college teaching experience; 2½ years as assistant dean in liberal arts college. Have taught both English and American literature; special fields: English novel, Victorian literature. Several scholarly articles; 1 book in press, under contract for a second. A 4087

Administration, Social Work, Sociology: Ph.D. in sociology, M.A. in social work; now tenured professor of social work in major university; age 38, married, 3 children; employed in social work for 7 years, college teaching, 6 years; available June, 1952. A 4088

Art: Man, 36, married, 1 child. B.S., M.F.A. 8 years' experience, 5 as assistant professor in Eastern university, teaching metalsmithing, ceramics, design. Commercial experience in product design, packaging. Extension workshops conducted for university and public schools. Work exhibited in East, Midwest. Excellent references. Available June 1 or September 1, 1952. A 4089

Bible, Religion, and/or Philosophy: Man, B.A., University of Manitoba; B.D., United College, Winnipeg; Ph.D. (New Testament), University of Chicago, 1947. 4 years' teaching experience, Midwestern university A 4090

Biological Sciences, Human Physiology, Zoology: Man, 37, married, 4 children. M.Sc. biological sciences, Ph.D. physiology (endocrine), Chicago. Publications, societies, 13 years' teaching, research, administration at college and professional-school levels: endocrinology, normal and abnormal human physiology and hygiene, embryology, histology, genetics, history of science, science communications. Executive officer at one, department head at another institution. Desire teaching or teaching-administrative post with possibility of research. Available July, 1952. A 4091

Biologist or Zoologist: Man, 34, married, 1 child. Ph.D., University of Southern California, with majors in physiology and endocrinology. Formerly associate professor of biology in a Midwestern college, now teaching at an Eastern university. Have taught all branches of biology or zoology, with special emphasis on the premedical sciences. Member of the A.A.U.P., Sigma Xi, Phi Sigma, and A.A.A.S. Publications. Prefer the Pacific Coast, Midwest, or Southwest in that order. Available beginning June, 1952. A 4092

Biology: Man, 35, married, 1 child. Ph.D. in embryology and genetics, California Institute of Technology. Presently instructor, Eastern university, teaching comparative vertebrate embryology, experimental embryology, comparative vertebrate anatomy, immunology. Also competent to teach genetics, general and comparative physiology, introductory courses in biology and zoology. Total

9 years' teaching experience, including 3 years' secondary school. Publications. Desire position in West with opportunity for permanent tenure; university, college or junior college. Available summer or fall, 1952. A 4093

Biology, Zoology: Man, 27, married, 1 child. B.S., Fort Hays Kansas State College; M.S. in physiology, Kansas State College. Served as graduate assistant. 2 years' teaching experience in small college. Honorary membership in professional and leadership fraternities. Excellent references. Available June, 1952. A 4094

Botanist (Strong Plant Physiology Background): 33. M.Sc., Ph.D. will be completed in June from leading Eastern university. Prefer teaching position with opportunity for research. Can teach plant physiology, cytology, microtechnique, botany. Half year high school teaching experience, 2 years' teaching, research in horticulture at a Western state college and experiment station. Presently assisting in physiology course. Author of bulletins, professional papers. Widely travelled in U. S., Europe, Africa, Central America. Veteran. Available June, 1952. A 4095

Chemistry: Man, 50, family. Ph.D. Experienced in teaching the various divisions of undergraduate chemistry, including physical science. Chief interest in teaching and individual conferences. A 4096

Chemistry: Man, 39, 2 children, Protestant. Ph.D. Established record of successful teaching for past 12 years. Present position, professor of chemistry. Active in the practice of professional chemistry, industrial research and publications. Desire location wherein part-time academic research is clearly encouraged. Active member national scientific societies and listed in usual national bibliographies, *American Men of Science*, etc. No locum tenens considered. A 4097

Dean, Dean of Men, and/or Counsellor to Foreign Students: Psychologist and educator. Publications. Experienced as a teacher and as a counsellor. Philosophy of education, mental hygiene, social psychology, educational classics, comparative education of Europe. Ph.D., married, available also for summer, or on agreement. A 4098

Drama: Man, married, 2 children. A.B., Harvard; M.F.A., Yale. Professional experience New York City, Pasadena Playhouse; 12 years' college theatre teaching and directing, including courses in dramatic literature, playwriting, theatre arts (acting, directing, production); experimental production of original scripts; directing variety of styles and productions; organization and direction of successful summer theatre. Exceptional references. Interested in additional responsibility and advancement. Confer at Annual Meeting in Philadelphia this March. A 4099

Economics: Man, 31. Dissertation nearing completion at Eastern university. Assistant professor in large state university; currently on leave with Foundation grant. Fields of concentration: labor, industrial organization, economic systems, theory, history, sociology. Prefer position in strong liberal arts college. A 4100

Economics or Economics and Sociology (Consumer Economics, Comparative Economic Systems, Labor, Public Finance, Social Security, Money and Banking, International Economic Problems—War; also Courses in Sociology with Marriage and the Family as a specialty): Ph.D., Illinois. 18 years' college teaching experience, 7 years' industrial experience, 1 year social work. Foremost interest is in teaching. Man, 49, married, 2 children. Available February, 1952. A 4101

Economics (Principles, Theory, Money, International, Comparative Systems, Cycles): Man, 27. M.A. Now completing Ph.D. dissertation at Columbia. Teaching experience. A 4102

Economics and Business Administration (Insurance, International Economics, For-

eign Trade, Economic History; also Business Law, Marketing, Investments). Man, 44, Ph.D. Associate professor, college near Los Angeles, Calif.; also University of California. Practical experience in insurance and foreign trade. Available for academic apppointment East or West Coast, September, 1952. A 4103

Education (Administration, Director of Guidance, or College Teaching): Woman, 50. Ph.D. in education. Major fields: administration and guidance. Experience: from first grade through university level in a college of education; most time spent in metropolitan secondary schools. Travelled extensively, here and abroad. Phi Beta Kappa, Pi Lambda Theta. Many professional organizations. Publications on secondary school teaching. Present position, associate professor of administrative education. Available September, 1952. Prefer Western United States. Correspondence invited. A 4104

Education or General Education: Man, 42, married. Prefer Southeast, Southwest, California. General education, foundations of education, higher education, social studies, geography. Doctorate expected, summer, 1952; available in September. Broad, varied experience; much graduate work; publications. A 4105

Educational-Vocational Guidance: Man, 35, married. Ph.D. (Columbia). Now completing fourth year clinical experience in community agency. 6 years in public school education. Desire position teaching applied psychology and/or education. Now part-time college teacher. A 4106

English: Woman, 28. Ph.D., 1950. Post-doctoral study at London University. Major fields: American literature, eighteenth and nineteenth century English literature. Extensive travel in the United States and Western Europe. Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Kappa Phi, *Directory of American Scholars.* 3½ years of full-time university teaching (composition and literature). Summer library experience. A 4107

English: Man, 46, married, 2 children. Ph.D., Duke. 20 years' teaching experience. Publications include volume of criticism; critical study of a major nineteenth century English poet; articles and reviews. Special fields: Nineteenth century poetry and prose; Bible as literature; creative writing. Broad interests in literature, music, philosophy, social concern, community service. Quaker, member of A.F.S.C. Now concluding five-year appointment in distinguished Pacific Coast university. Desire permanent associate or professor rank in first-class small college or university, with opportunity and encouragement for lively teaching, research in Romanticism, and creative writing of historical fiction. Available June 15, 1952. A 4108

English: Man, 31, married. M.A., Ph.D., nearing completion, Columbia University. Major field: American literature. Minor fields: Medieval English and Romantic literature. 5 years' college English teaching experience, 2 in major field. Excellent references and publication. Prefer college or university within the environs of New York City, but will consider any other locations easily reached from New York City. Primary interest is a full-time position. Available September, 1952. A 4109

English: Man, 30, married, veteran, no children. M.A., Ph.D., University of Chicago. Experience: 2 years at major Eastern University teaching undergraduate courses in history of the English language and the early literature, and graduate courses in Old and Middle English. Would especially like to teach courses in early English literature. Specialties: Old and Middle English philology, textual criticism, fourteenth century literature. Publications. Member MLA and AFS. Have ACLS Scholars award to do research for academic year 1951–1952. Available September, 1952. A 4110

English: Woman, 29. Ph.D., February, 1950. Fulbright Grant to England, 1949–1950. Extensive travel in Europe. Experience: 3 years' full-time teach-

ing in state university, 2 as an assistant, 1 as an instructor. Library experience. Composition, early periods of English literature, with emphasis on Renaissance literature. A 4111

English: Woman, 42. Ph.D., George Peabody College for Teachers; M.A. and A.B. from two leading universities; study in England. Experience: 12 years, liberal arts and teachers colleges; 2, supervisor, teacher training schools; 4, public high schools. Have had experience in teaching almost all phases of English, but prefer survey courses in American, English, and World literature. Excellent references. No geographical limitations. Available June, 1952. A 4112

English: Man, 50, married, 1 child. Ph.D. 26 years' experience in college teaching, 11 as professor and department chairman. European travel and research. Scholarly articles and book. Active in professional organizations and on faculty committees. Now engaged in major research project. Principal field: Middle Ages; secondary fields: Nineteenth century and Shakespeare. Desire position with greater opportunities for advanced or graduate teaching, with time for research and writing. A 4113

English: Man, 27, married. B.A. and M.A., Yale; B. Litt., Oxon. 2 years' college teaching experience English and American literature, specializing in nineteenth century. Creative writing. Effective public speaker. 3 years abroad as Rotary Foundation Fellow and Fulbright Scholar. Desire post September, 1952. Excellent references. A 4114

English: Man, 45, married, 5 children. Ph.D. Phi Beta Kappa, *Who's Who in America*, Methodist. 20 years' experience as professor and head of department. Publications, including 3 books and a multi-volume work now in press. Fields: American and English (nineteenth century) literature, American history and civilization, also specialist in teacher training. Member N.C.T.E. Curriculum Commission. Last four years spent in editorial and research work with Rockefeller grant. Should like combination graduate and undergraduate teaching, editorial or administrative appointment if suitable, beginning September, 1952. A 4115

English: Woman. Ph.D. Wide experience; publications; available now. A 4116

English: Man, 44, married. Ph.D., Minnesota. 17 years' experience, last 9 as department chairman in small university. 3 books published on nineteenth and twentieth century literature. Other interests: "Freshman English," "general education" courses in humanities. Available September, 1952. A 4117

English-American Literature: Man, 29, married, 2 children. M.A. honors, Ph.D., Columbia (1951); 2 years' teaching experience in major metropolitan colleges, teaching all fields as well as my own, American literature and culture; published article, book reviews, and dissertation, revised, is to be brought out by major university press; references from academicians of highest standing; desire assistant professorship, East, Midwest, or West; available September, 1952. A 4118

English or American Studies Program: Man, 33, single. A.M. with major in American literature. All course and residence requirements for Ph.D. completed by end of summer. 4 years' college teaching. Major field: American literature. Minor fields: Romantic and Victorian literature. Number of articles published or accepted for publication here and abroad. Prefer strong Eastern or Southern church-related college or university. Excellent references. Available September, 1952. A 4119

English and Dramatics: Man, 30. M.A. 2 years' college experience. Composition, creative writing, survey, world literature, Romantic movement. Little theatre experience for courses in dramatic expression, acting, staging, related

subjects. Desire New York City or vicinity, college or advanced prep school, full or part time. Available now. A 4120

French: Woman. Professeur Agrégée de l'Université de France. Seek post in college or university, preferably East, chiefly New England, for September, 1952. Varied experience on both continents; good recommendations. A 4121

French: Man, Yale Ph.D. and Doctorate, University of Paris. Publications include recent book. Have spoken French and German since childhood, am also teaching Spanish after studies in Mexico. Desire advancement to associate professorship. Available June, 1952, or thereafter. A 4122

French, German, Latin, Italian, World Literature: Man, 27, married. Schweizerische Eidgenössische Maturität (B.A.), Zürich. Licence ès-Lettres (M.A.) and Licence Complémentaire de Pédagogie, Doctorat ès-Lettres (Ph.D.), Geneva. Four languages spoken fluently. Widely travelled in Europe and America. One year foreign, two years and two summer sessions American college teaching experience. Extensive work on the short story now in print in London. Articles and short stories in Swiss newspapers. Citizen as of August, 1952. Available fall, 1952. Seek assistant professorship. A 4123

French, German, Russian, Spanish: Frenchman, 38. M.A., LLM., Ph.D. University of Paris; Grad. Fellow, Yale University. Qualified to teach history, international law and political science; 10 years' teaching experience; books published; excellent references. Dr. Albert, 2532 Yale Station, New Haven, Conn.

Fund-Raising, English: Man, Ph.D., Phi Beta Kappa, located in New York City. Experienced in fund-raising, publishing; 9 years' college and university teaching. Specialist in composition; also teach surveys; Restoration; eighteenth, sixteenth centuries; American literature. Publications. Interested combination fund-raising and teaching. A 4124

German: Man, 39, married, 1 child, native American. Ph.D. 9 years' experience teaching in universities, including scientific German, history of civilization, comparative literature. 5 published articles; book completed. Special interests: Romantic period, esthetic theory. Available fall, 1952. A 4125

German (all Levels, Scientific German, Aufklaerung, Goethe, Philosphy in Literature): Man, European training, Ph.D., European and American experience in universities, challenging teacher, interested in the welfare of students, very mature age, want opportunity. Also ready to take over administrative duties. A 4127

Guidance, Student Personnel, Administration: Man, 28, married. B.S., personnel management. A.M., education. Ed. M., guidance and student personnel, Harvard. Doctorate candidate. Director of guidance at junior college for the past 3 years. Formerly in charge of Veterans Administration Guidance Center at strong Eastern college. Teaching experience includes psychology, personnel, and general education. Army experience in teaching and counseling. Good public speaker; active in community affairs. Available September, 1952. A 4128

History: Married man, 30, family. M.A. and all requirements for Ph.D., except for dissertation, which is now in progress. Major field: American history; Minor fields: American Government and Modern European history. 6 years' teaching experience. Available fall, 1952. A 4129

History: Man, 46, married, 3 children. B.A. (high honors in classics), Ph.D., Yale. Major field: Classics and Ancient History; many articles published, book in progress; have taught Latin, Greek, Ancient, Medieval, and European history. Available immediately. References. 12 years of college teaching. A 4130

History: Man, 29. Ph.D., University of North Carolina. 5 years' college teaching, Southeast and Midwest. Full-time research 1951–1952 as ACLS Scholar. Teaching interests, European history, especially since 1815. Research field,

Germany since 1867. Several published articles, book in progress. Military and industrial administrative experience. Family. Available September, 1952, possibly July, 1952. John Snell, 425 Margarita Avenue, Palo Alto, Calif.

History (Byzantine and Modern Balkan and Near Eastern): Ph.D. with high honors; closely acquainted with the area, especially with Greece and Turkey, from extensive studies locally. 19 years' teaching experience of which 10 on college level. Excellent references. Books; articles in scholarly journals; now working on textbook. Have also taught Greek and Roman history and classics. Man, 40, married, 2 children. Available fall, 1952. A 4131

History or Economics: Man, 37, married, 2 children. Ph.D. (American and European history and economics). 7 years' teaching experience. Author of book and articles. Listed in biographical publications. Now associate professor with permanent tenure at a teachers' college. Strong interest in economics. Desire change for financial and professional advancement. Interested in doing both research and good teaching. Nelson Klose, 24 East Sixth, Edmond, Okla.

History (Modern European, Russian, Soviet): Man, 28, married, veteran. M.A., Certif. Russian Inst. of Columbia U., Ph.D. candidate. 1 year college teaching exp.; can offer polit. science courses; excellent references; available summer or fall, 1952; will consider temporary position or one with future and research opportunities. A 4132

History, Political Science: Man, 38, family. Ph.D. European and American training. Citizen. Harvard Scholar. Associate professor in good small college, 10 years' college teaching, including in Eastern universities, introductory and specialized courses: Russia, Germany, International Relations, Comparative Government, etc.; Listed in a *Who's Who* and in *Directory of American Scholars;* excellent references as teacher, lecturer, and researcher; numerous publications; read 10 languages; book in German history just accepted for publication. Desire change. A 4133

Humanities: Man, 32, married, 2 children, European born and travelled. Ph.D. Long experience at Eastern college in teaching: philosophy, music, and German. Available September, 1952. A 4134

Languages: Especially German (also French) literature and philology; European and American experience; excellent references. Also scientific German, scientific French. Administrative interests. Ph.D. Publications. A 4135

Librarian, Head: Man; graduate library school and M.A. degree, some Ph.D. work; experienced head of active college library, now employed; knowledge of building planning, audio-visual services, library instruction; desire position as head librarian of outstanding liberal arts college or university; $6000. A 4136

Marketing: Man, 35, married, 2 children. B.S., M.S., 1 year's work completed toward Ph.D., marketing. 3 years' college teaching. Salesmanship, sales management, wholesaling. 12 years' merchandising experience. Articles published nationally in field of marketing. Effective speaker, excellent relations with top-management. Currently, Head, Institute of Industrial & Labor Relations. Desire change because of climate. West preferred. Excellent references. Available after June, 1952. A 4137

Mathematics: Man, 39, married, 2 children. Ph.D. (Harvard); several publications, including current ones. Recommendations pay praise to teaching ability and scholarship. Government research contract would pay considerable part of salary. Available at any time on six to twelve months' notice. A 4138

Mathematics: A.B., B.S., M.A. degrees; proximate Ph.D. Membership A.A.U.P., American Math. Society, Pi Mu Epsilon. Experienced university and secondary. Civil Service College Professor (Mathematics) rating GS-11. Available immediately. A 4139

Mathematics: Man, 34, married. Ph.D.; Phi Beta Kappa. Sixth year in present college teaching position. A 4140

Mathematics: B.S., M.A., engineering background. Age 58, 25 years' teaching and administrative experience in elementary and high schools, junior colleges, liberal arts colleges and universities. Author of text in elementary algebra, 2 manuscripts ("Mathematics of Finance" and one on miscellaneous use of linear diagrams in teaching various operations in arithmetic and algebra). Also joint author of published article on "Use of linear diagrams to aid in teaching the function concept." Available September, 1952. A 4141

Music: Man, 30, married, veteran, no-reserve status. B.A. in music, Hendrix College; M.M. music history and literature, University of Michigan. 4 years' teaching experience in advanced music theory, advanced music history, class instruments, private instruments. Principal instruments violin and viola. Excellent recommendations. Available summer, 1952. Member A.A.U.P., Phi Mu Alpha, M.E.N.C. A 4142

Music: Man, 30, family, veteran, no reserve status. Composer, conductor, also teach theoretical subjects, history, contemporary music. B. Mus. (highest honors), M. Mus. in composition, New England Conservatory of Music; Fulbright Scholar, Edinburgh University; conducting study at Mozarteum, Salzburg. 3 years' teaching experience at college and adult education levels; band and dance band experience, both playing and arranging; compositions and transcriptions in process of publication. Member A.A.U.P., Kappa Gamma Psi, Pi Kappa Lambda. Available summer session 1952 and thereafter. A 4143

Music: Man, married. M.A., Mus. B., Mus. D. Choral conductor, organist, teacher, with administrative experience, retiring because of age limit from professorship in well-known college. Excellent health; efficiency and enthusiasm undiminished. Listed in *Who's Who in America*, etc. Available September, 1952. A 4144

Music: Man, 34, family, veteran but no reserve status. B.A. in Ed., University of New Mexico; B. Mus., M. Mus. in voice, Butler University's Jordan College of Music; currently working on Ph.D. in musicology, Indiana University School of Music. 5 years' teaching experience, 4 in college. Recital, radio, oratorio, opera experience. Listed in *Who's Who in Music*. Member A.A.U.P., Theta Alpha Phi, Pi Kappa Lambda, M.E.N.C. Available September, 1952. A 4145

Music (Music Education, Instrumental Music, Music History): Man 38, married, family, veteran, but not in reserve. B. Music in education, M. Music; second year on Doctorate in music education, dissertation in progress. Experienced in public school work; 5 years' college and university. Position desired in music education, instrumental music. Specialties: strings, string class methods, string ensemble, and orchestra. Experience in conducting symphony orchestra, playing violin and viola in orchestra. Desire head of department, liberal arts college or teachers college, or head of instrumental music in state university. Available September, 1952. A 4146

Philosophy: Man, late twenties, married, 1 child. Ph.D., 3 years' university teaching experience. Special interest in aesthetics, contemporary French philosophy, and methodology of the social sciences. Can teach psychology and sociology. Published book, also articles in professional journals. ACLS Scholar 1951–1952. Member A.A.U.P. and A.P.A. Available July, 1952. A 4147

Philosophy: Man, 30, family. M.A.; Harvard Ph.D. to be granted June, 1952, or at latest February, 1953. Phi Beta Kappa. 4 years' teaching experience; history, introduction, logic, and ethics. Background in psychology; B.A. in English. At present a teaching fellow at Harvard. Available any time after June, 1952. A 4148

Philosophy (if desirable Greek, Western Civilization): Man, Ph.D. Experienced teacher in the humanities; want opportunity in progressive institution. A 4149

Philosophy, Religion, Psychology: Man, Ph.D., married, decade college teaching, wide range of interests and diversified publications, membership professional societies, standard listings, travel, liberal Protestant concern. Now teaching at both undergraduate and graduate levels in medium sized university. Consider awareness the particular concern of higher education and that, without it, "welfare" and "adjustment" are illusory. Would qualify at senior rank or as departmental or area leader in a college or university similarly oriented. Available June or September, 1952. A 4150

Physics: Man 31, married. M.S. (M.I.T.), Ph.D. completion date, summer, 1952 (N.Y.U.) Phi Beta Kappa. Ex-Captain Air Force Meteorologist. 6 years' physics teaching at Eastern institutions. Contract research and publications. Available fall, 1952. Prefer East Coast. A 4151

Political Science: Man, 35, obtaining Ph.D. in June. 3½ years' college teaching, 1 year study in Britain. Now a one-man department in a small college with heavy teaching load. Desire change to a position permitting more specialization and time for research. Fields: public administration, political parties, British government. Available September, 1952. A 4152

Psychology: Man, 31, Ph.D., highly qualified for research and teaching. Looking for position where opportunities will be given for intellectual creativity, and accomplishments will be rewarded. Interested in application of theoretical methods of natural science to problems of human behavior. Backward-looking administrators need not reply. A 4153

Psychology (Student Personnel, Industrial, Educational, Applied): Man, 42, married. Ph.D. Experienced as teacher, student personnel worker, consultant. Publications; applied research. A.P.A., A.C.P.A., Sigma Xi, Phi Delta Kappa, etc. Prefer South, Southeast, or Gulf areas. A 4154

Russian and French (also Russian History and Literature): Man, 35, married, American-born. Service with U. S. Army in G.2. Now with a large Northwestern university. 6 years' teaching experience, 4 of which on college level. Desire position in South or South Central portion of U. S. for reasons of family health. Available September, 1952. A 4155

Sociology and Social Science (Social Psychology, General Social Science, Political Science): Man, 34, married. M.A. in political science; Ph.D. in sociology, University of Chicago; graduate work, University of North Carolina. 5 years' teaching experience in sociology, social psychology, and political science; 4 years in teaching integrated social science program in general education. Articles in sociological and psychiatric journals. 3 books in preparation, one of these contracted, one on option. First choice, Southeast; second choice, Northeast. Desire opportunity for graduate teaching and research and writing. Minimum rank: associate professor. Available June, 1952. A 4156

Spanish: Man, 30, Spanish-born, married, 1 child. 4 years' college experience. Ph.D. requirements complete except thesis. Graduate of leading American universities. Additional study in Europe; widely travelled in Latin America. Number of articles published here and abroad. Foremost interest is in teaching. Specialization: analysis of texts and Latin-American literature. Excellent background in classics. Speak various languages. Seek assistant professorship. References. Available September, 1952. A 4157

Spanish: Mature, married man, native Puerto Rican Spaniard, white, Unitarian. Ph.B. and M.A., plus work on Ph.D. in Spanish. Former assistant professor of Spanish in four Midwestern colleges. Have written 5 novels in Spanish, 4 published in Madrid, Spain. Prefer vicinity of Chicago, but will go elsewhere in

Northeast U. S. if salary is $4000 or better and position permanent. Available at once. A 4158

Speech-English: Specialist in radio-television, dramatic art, literature, history of the drama and dramatic criticism, speech (including discussion, interpretation, and fundamentals). M.A. from a major university. Certificates from professional schools, American and English. Professional experience in both theater and radio, here and abroad. Author of many articles, both popular and scholarly, and of a forthcoming book. Producer of radio forums. Administrator of top-flight professional staff. Currently teaching radio, television, and film on undergraduate and graduate levels, the director of a radio workshop producing on metropolitan stations and heard in international hookup. Woman, early thirties, unmarried. Hold and seek rank of assistant professor. A 4159

Zoologist: Man, 35, B.A., Pomona, Ph.D., Cornell, in vertebrate zoology. Minors in invertebrate zoology and entomology. 9 years' college and university teaching experience in biological sciences. At present acting chairman of science division in liberal arts college. Desire change to position offering opportunity for permanence. Familiar with California and Northeastern States. Special interests in conservation, mammalogy, and comparative morphology. Publications. Best references. A 4160

Zoology, Biology, Botany: Man, 34, veteran, married, 1 child. M.A., expect Ph.D., August, 1952, under leading embryologist. Sigma Xi, Gamma Alpha, A.A.U.P., A.A.A.S. 5 years' teaching experience in top ranking universities at freshman and upper class levels. Major fields: embryology, endocrinology, and histology. Minor: botany. A 4161

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